

VOLUME XXII, No. 1

APRIL 3, 1909

THE
SURVEY
SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

WITH THIS ISSUE, "CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS" IS RECHRISTENED THE SURVEY. THE OLD NAME, TO MANY OF US AS FAMILIAR AND WELCOME AS THE FACE OF A FRIEND, PROVED A STUMBLING-BLOCK TO NEW READERS. AS ONE IMPORTANT OBJECT OF THE MAGAZINE IS TO SPREAD THE NEWS OF SOCIAL ADVANCE AND TO RECRUIT WORKERS IN BEHALF OF THE COMMON WELFARE, A CHANGE WAS DEEMED WISE. OUR READERS ARE URGED TO HELP US IN TAKING FULLEST ADVANTAGE OF THIS OPPORTUNITY FOR WIDER SOCIAL SERVICE.

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFORST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

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FORMERLY CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS

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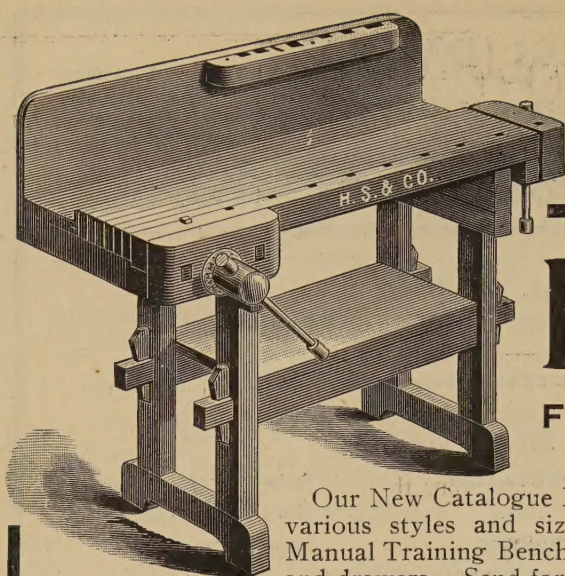
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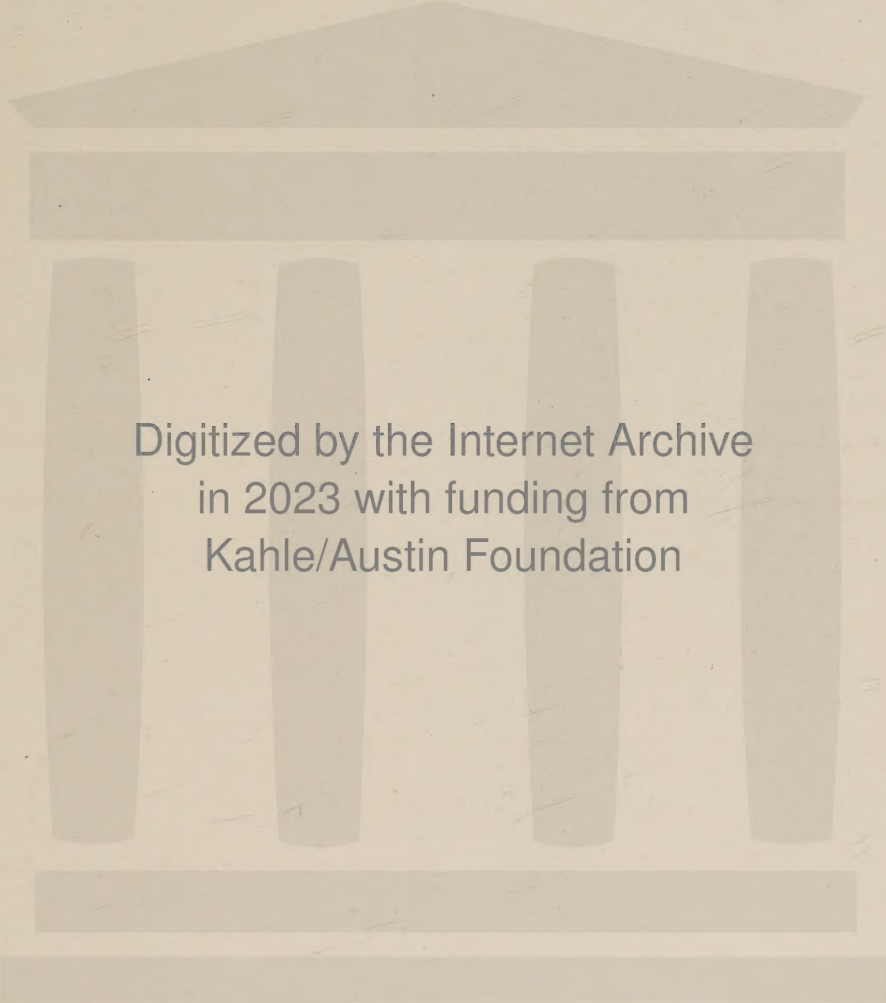
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STRONG BACKS GO INTO STEEL.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE PERVERSION OF SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Hospitals of an earlier day, like prisons and other institutions in which people were crowded without proper safeguards, sometimes became centers of infection. Skilled medical attendance was provided, but good nursing, isolation rooms, and sanitary cleanliness were wanting. Then Florence Nightingale announced the clarifying doctrine that *hospitals, whatever else they do, should not make people sick*. From this negative but fruitful axiom, there came as logical corollaries the essential conditions of a good hospital. The principle which redeemed the hospital is one which is capable of application to other institutions.

The most obvious analogy to the principle that hospitals should not make people sick, is that prisons should not make criminals. There is much evidence of the need for applying this negative but elementary doctrine. Prisons and jails which receive convicts for brief, definite sentences, permitting association of young offenders with hardened criminals, giving no reformatory or educational discipline, earn the reproach of the insanitary hospital. They pervert the very principle of their existence. They spread the infection of crime, even as the perverted hospital spreads the infection of disease. The reformatory has its legitimate and necessary place in the penal system. So has the colony in which, as in a hospital for the insane, incorrigible enemies of society may be permanently isolated. But the prison which represents merely the idea of vengeance and punishment is hard put to it to justify its existence at all. And when it makes criminals of its inmates the balance against it becomes grievously heavy.

The police system should not create hostility towards the representatives of law and order. The police drag-net, which on the assassination of a police officer brings into court innocent and law abiding laborers, is calculated to produce just such an effect. Needless clubbing and other brutality have this effect. This attitude of hostility is natural for the small merchant who is not protected against criminal blackmail, and for the Italian laborer, who, in despair of such police protection as he has enjoyed in his own country, arms himself with knife or revolver, only to find that this is more certain to be punished than the "black-hand" outrage against which it was intended to be a protection. Unjustified arrest, third-degree torture, protection of criminals for pay, and other perversions of the police power, are on a par with the crime-making prison, and the insanitary, disease-breeding hospital.

Charity should not make paupers. Here again we have an application of our general principle that should prove very useful in testing the value of the work of charitable societies, and the wisdom of the practices and policies of individuals who think themselves charitable. Strength and not comfort is the end which we should rank highest among the good things which we covet for

those who look to us for help. Charity is to relieve distress, as the police system is to prevent crime, but it is equally essential that it should guard effectively against the perversion of its function. It must not itself multiply the occasions for its exercise.

Industry should not make workers unemployable. Here is opened up an exceedingly interesting field of speculation. Excessive hours of labor, under-pay, irregular employment, throwing men out of employment as a first resort in periods of business retrenchment, displacing workers at the first sign of advancing age by young men because of their extra strength and pliability, are among the features of industry which may be regarded not unfairly as perversions of its natural function. They tend to make men unemployable, which is the very destruction of industry. Goods must be produced, and transported, and placed on the market, and sold, but all this should be done in such a way as to conserve the usefulness of those who do the work, not in such a way as to destroy their usefulness.

The school should not make its pupils inefficient. The function of education is to pass on to the growing generation the accumulated achievements of the race. Its aim is to put the next generation on the shoulders of the present, both in respect to earning and producing capacity, and in respect to powers of enjoyment. The life for which children are to be prepared is one of work and of leisure. They should be made efficient in both. The school which makes misfits, either vocational or simply as living, rational human beings, compelled daily to choose between good and evil, and between the good and the better, belongs with the hospital, the prison, the police system and the charity, which miss their natural calling. The school, whatever else it does, should not make misfits. This is not the whole philosophy of education, but it is a good beginning of it. The axiom which is so useful when applied to other institutions, will at least help us determine whether a given school system is failing to meet the most elementary and fundamental of all tests, whether it is perverting its function, whether it is producing inefficiency instead of strength.

Churches should not create an indifference to religion. Missions should not make bread lines. Recreation should not devitalize. Politics should not undermine good citizenship. Retail trade should not result in the exploitation of consumers. Child saving agencies should not exhibit an excessive mortality. State labor departments should not neglect to make an intelligible report in regard to the factory conditions subject to their supervision. A federal investigation of the labor of women and children should not be unable to make reports of progress from time to time, like the bulletins of the Census Bureau, and thus be compelled to present its results in bulk long afterwards, when the facts upon which it reports are perhaps no longer of interest or value.

The perversion of social institutions is oftener than not the result of thoughtless or indifferent direction. Those who ultimately pay the bills for their creation and maintenance have no desire that hospitals shall make people sick, or that prisons shall make criminals, or that charity shall make paupers, or that factories shall make workingmen unemployable.

THE COMMON WELFARE

HOW THE POLICE MAKE CRIMINALS

A poor young widow, with a babe of eight months in her arms, confronted a "plain clothes" police officer in a Chicago station house where he was a prisoner. "My husband loved me and our baby so much, and you shot him like a dog," she cried.

The young workingman was hurrying home from his work when this man without uniform suddenly emerged from a saloon and told him to stop and hold up his hands. When his victim hurried only the faster, probably fearing a hold-up, the officer fired point blank at him, killing him instantly. The detective's explanation is that he mistook his victim for a criminal whom, it has been proved, he in no wise resembled. The grand jury has returned an indictment for manslaughter against the detective. The police trial board will probably drop him from the force whatever the verdict of the jury and the criminal court may be.

But these results are sorry substitutes for justice to the dependent widow and her fatherless babe. Neither the poorhouse nor private charity can ever compensate for the irreparable injury done her by a man unworthy to be on the police force of the city. There should be some way of recovering damages from the municipality for the lawless act of its authorized agent.

This case suggests the strict account to which citizens should hold civil service commissioners for appointments to the police force, and the chief of police and mayor for

strict discipline of the force. To the credit of the Chicago civil service be it said, that by finger print tests and other means of identification sixteen men with criminal records were recently detected in an effort to get on the force, either by passing the examination or by reporting for appointment to duty in place of men who had passed the examination.

The club and the concealed, but too readily handy, gun are still the signs by which our police conquer; the number of arrests their credit marks. But standards of police efficiency and discipline are happily changing, even if only here and there.

In Cleveland, where the police force was efficient enough to capture the kidnappers for whom the whole country was searching, its chief dared, as he told his brother chiefs, "to break the custom of the world and the ages in Cleveland." First he determined "to treat men as men even when they are drunk, even when they disturb the peace, even when they insult the dignity of a policeman." To this end he determined to have his policemen "use the best human instincts and exercise that discretion which judges did not always exercise." "The results of our Golden Rule Policy are good," says Chief Kohler. To the other chiefs he said: "You know that the police, unwillingly and unwittingly, have been instrumental in making as many criminals as any other agency—poverty, heritage and association excepted. We have discouraged men. We have punished; we have not prevented crime. The time has come to change

With this issue "Charities and The Commons" is rechristened THE SURVEY. The old name, to many of us as familiar and welcome as the face of a friend, proved a stumbling-block to new readers. As one important object of the magazine is to spread the news of social advance and to recruit workers in behalf of the Common Welfare, a change was deemed wise. Our readers are urged to help us in taking fullest advantage of this opportunity for wider social service.

all this and I believe we in Cleveland have found the way to do it."

Commenting on this address in a pamphlet on the Police as Social and Moral Reformers, J. J. Kelso of Toronto says: "If we could constitute all the members of our police force agents for the social betterment of the city, what an influence for good they might exert—and this without any diminution of their authority as officers of the law." As a step in the right direction he asks: "Might not a wider interpretation be given to an officer's duty, so that, by his kindly effort as parole and probation agent the stream that is now so steadily flowing in the direction of the jail and the penitentiary might be diverted into channels of worthy and useful citizenship?"

PLAY CONGRESS IN PITTSBURGH

The third annual congress of the Playground Association of America will be held in Pittsburgh May 10-14. The Pittsburgh Playground Association will act as hosts. The playground hits life in a hundred ways, and the gathering will bear upon education, civics, physical development and settlement work.

The morning sessions are to be given up to one hour discussions of reports by ten committees which have investigated special phases of the playground question throughout the United States. These will include reports on Athletics for Boys by A. K. Aldinger; Equipment by E. B. DeGroot; Folk Dancing by Elizabeth Burchenal; Playgrounds as Social Centers by Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch; Play in Institutions by Hastings H. Hart; State Laws by Joseph Lee; Story-telling in the Playground by Maud Summers; and Playground Statistics by Leonard P. Ayres. Another committee, that on Normal Courses in Play, of which Prof. Clark W. Hetherington of the University of Missouri is chairman, will take up the question of courses for normal schools and university departments, such as train teachers for playground work. A festival committee, under Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses Settlement, New York, is working out ways for celebrating national holidays to make them significant instead of

merely noisy picnics. The solution may lie in arranging children's festivals in which the spirit of the day is interpreted in dramatic and musical form.

The afternoons are to be devoted to a winter playground exhibition in Lawrence Park, an outdoor exhibition in Washington Park, arranged by the Pittsburgh Playground Association, and some are to be left open so that visitors may inspect the playgrounds and recreation centers.

The Pittsburgh system is unique in the degree of co-operation between a private organization and a municipality. The Playground Association, which started in 1896 with one school yard playground at a cost of \$125, now maintains more than ten school playgrounds, nine vacation schools, five city playgrounds and six recreation parks, with a budget of \$50,000. Its work is a stimulating illustration of one channel through which private agencies may co-operate with their local governments for civic betterment.

A reception on Monday evening, a night trip to one of the steel mills, and a folk song festival the last evening are other features of the congress. The first evening there will be speaking by a small group of national leaders, and it is possible that one entire evening will be devoted to a discussion of making our national holidays significant. The spirit with which Pittsburgh celebrated her sesqui-centennial last fall may have something of suggestion in it in this connection.

A playground biography of Pittsburgh, describing the genesis and educational purposes of the association, by Miss Beulah Kennard, will be a feature of a later issue of THE SURVEY. As pointed out by Robert A. Woods in his review of local civic progress for the Pittsburgh Survey, this playground development, like that of the district Carnegie libraries in Pittsburgh, has been a signal contribution to constructive social work in America.

TO PRESERVE CENTRAL PARK

An issue of moment to every city in the country is at stake in the fight before

the New York Legislature to keep the National Academy of Design from building a gallery in Central Park. To leave the whole park for the people would seem a simple thing. Yet Central Park, which has a national reputation and might be called a national institution, has to be guarded jealously every time the Legislature sits at Albany. It has been coveted by commercial interests which wanted its broad green acres for a race track or a peanut stand, and by enthusiastic but ill-advised friends who would alter its design, fill up its lakes "to prevent mosquitoes," fell its trees or otherwise mar its quiet beauty. Outlying parks have been even more persistently attacked—by railroads, sportsmen, subway builders and even by Columbia University which proposed a private stadium in Riverside Park.

The plans of the National Academy of Design to replace the frankly homely old Arsenal, used for Park Department offices, with a \$600,000 art gallery were attractive. The eminent and, it may well be, disinterested men who urged it, made the opposition to such an innovation all the more difficult. At the hearing before the Assembly committee on cities, the academy urged that such an institution in such a setting would make of New York a great art center, provide for large exhibits and open them to the public. The ground space asked for did not exceed that occupied by the Arsenal and its paved court.

But the hearing brought out a determined opposition on the part of every sort and condition of people in New York city, from crowded East Side debating clubs to the men and women of wealth who live near the park. Members of the Assembly were flooded with protesting letters—apparently the whole city followed the lead of the Outdoor Recreation League, the People's Institute, the Citizens' Union, the American Society of Landscape Architects, the Parks and Playground Association, the Neighborhood Workers' Association and others in the opposition. The argument, in brief, was that a permissive bill for space in the park is inherently vicious; it forms a precedent and opens the way for other encroachments. However worthy the

plan and organization of the National Academy of Design, it is, nevertheless, a private body, having distinctly commercial features in the sale of pictures on its walls, and proposing a perpetual franchise for a portion of public property to be administered exclusively under its private control.

The very small park area in New York in proportion to its population prohibits any slightest move in a direction which leads to reducing that area. The need is for a strong movement in just the opposite direction. The Metropolitan Museum of Art and the Natural History Museum are both located on park property, but under such conditions as to offer no similarity to the proposition under discussion.

The civic bodies interested have a stiffer fight on their hands in killing the bill giving the park commissioners power to lease parts of Pelham Bay Park for commercial or club purposes. There public opinion is not aroused as in the case of Central Park, yet the proposed encroachment is more serious. The organization of a representative committee on recreation, which shall have an eye and a guiding hand on all such matters, as well as oversight of indoor and theatrical amusement, is urgently needed. Its early formation is said to be assured.

TYPE FOR BLIND PUPILS

The New York city Board of Education recently decided to experiment in teaching its blind children with seeing children in the public schools. Similar experiments are being conducted in Chicago, Milwaukee and Racine, Wisconsin, and the plan is under consideration in Cleveland.¹ In May, 1908, the board's committee on course of study, after careful consideration, submitted a proposition with regard to this subject and recommended, among other things, that teaching should be carried on in Braille, one of the tactile print systems used by the blind in this country. As the other system, New York Point, is in use at the well known and long established Institution for the Blind in New York city,

¹ A separate day school for the blind is maintained by the Cincinnati School Board.

the board delayed inaugurating the work and arranged a public hearing for March 24 "at which the relative merits of the Braille system and the New York Point system" were to be discussed before the committee on elementary schools.

Abraham Stern, the presiding officer, said that the board was not prejudiced in favor of either system but desired to give the blind children of the city the best available type.

F. Augustus Schermerhorn, president of the trustees of the New York City School for the Blind, William B. Wait, principal emeritus of the school and father of the New York Point type, Superintendent Bledsoe of the Maryland School for the Blind and others stated that New York Point was being used in both the schools for the blind in the state of New York, that more books were available in that system than in any other in the New York libraries, that it took much less space than Braille being, on that account, cheaper, that it was more complete and that if not adopted the blind children of New York city would be deprived of the dictionary, religious literature and the Bible in tactile print.

The use of the American Braille system was advocated by Miss Winifred Holt, secretary of the New York Association for the Blind which has been interested from the beginning in having the day classes started, George W. Jones, superintendent of the Illinois State School for the Blind, John B. Curtis (blind), supervisor of the education of blind children in Chicago public schools; Frank H. Hall, formerly superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind, the inventor of the Hall Braille writer for the blind and for thirty-five years superintendent of public schools, and several blind men. Letters were read from Supt. Thomas S. McAloney of the Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind; Supt. S. M. Green of the Missouri School for the Blind and Helen Keller from whose letter the following extract is taken.

Between these two systems, it seems to me, there can be no question when the facts are all properly presented to you.

I have always found New York Point a difficult, unsatisfactory system. I object to

it as it appears in many books I have seen because it does not use capitals, apostrophes and hyphens. This sometimes spoils the sense for the reader. But it has a worse effect upon the pupil. He is liable to get an imperfect idea of capitalization and punctuation. I have received from blind persons letters written on the ordinary ink typewriter which contained errors significantly like the defects in New York Point, and I cannot but believe that this is traceable to their habitual use of a defective mode of punctographic writing during school years. . . . Of the letters which I receive in the two systems, a far larger proportion are well written in American Braille.

The Brailist speakers developed the fact that while an indefinite number of possible combinations of dots, for use as tactile letters and other signs, is claimed for the New York Point system, it has only thirty-nine practical characters while Braille has sixty-three; that Braille is much easier to write and correct on account of the uniform size of its letter base; that because of its less condensed form it is easier to read; that in spite of the fact that New York Point has been pushed by the American Printing House with its annual national grant of \$10,000 and all the force of Superintendent Wait's powerful personality, American Braille, from its introduction in one school (the Perkins Institution) in 1890 is to-day used in twenty-one institutions. The speakers showed the wealth of literature and music already in American Braille and stated that text books for the seeing children changed so often that each city must own printing machinery for the blind (costing less than \$400) and produce its own text books, as can be done at small *per capita* cost; that the dictionary and the Bible previously referred to are little used because in them the characters are too small to be easily read; that blind readers in the state of New York, owing to the free mailing privilege, can obtain books outside of New York just as easily as from libraries in New York; that Braille is not at great disadvantage with regard to space and cost and that even if it were these items should not be considered compared with legibility and correctness of form including complete punctuation and capitalization making them models for the classroom. Extracts from title pages and the *Ziegler Magazine for the*

Blind were brought forward to show that while the New York Point system has the possibility of capitalization and full punctuation, the characters used for its capitals and some of the punctuation marks are so impracticable that they are not used in printed books as they have been in American Braille from the beginning.

The climax of the argument for American Braille was made by William Perry, himself blind, a graduate of Amherst College and the Harvard Law School and the present city solicitor for New Bedford, who said:

Don't burden the blind with poor tools or cheap education, give them the best. The blind man has so great a handicap with his lack of sight that should he compete in the public school, the college or university and the world he must make up for his deficiency by superior education, application and perseverance. New York Point has served the blind of the country by showing that a point system was superior to the once universally used line type, but that has had its day and must eventually give place to the newer and better system. The city of New York, whose public schools under Superintendent Maxwell, are being held up as a model to the country, must establish model classes for the blind and to do this it must obviously use the best system of tactile print, American Braille.

PROHIBITION IN MASSACHUSETTS

The committee on constitutional amendments of the Massachusetts Legislature has reported a bill providing for an amendment to the effect that hereafter in the state "the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors to be used as a beverage are prohibited. The general court shall enact suitable legislation to enforce the provisions of the article." When the vote was taken all members of the committee were present except one. Of the eleven members three have dissented from the report and another reserves the right to dissent.

Regardless of personal opinion on the matter, a majority of the members of the committee believe that the people of the state have the right to decide on this question and that they should have the chance through the submission to them of a proposed amendment to the consti-

tution. They are the more led to this because of the very heavy no-license vote cast in Massachusetts during the past year.

The dissenters, on the other hand, argue that the people do not want any change in the liquor laws and that a large vote in favor of no-license does not carry any justifiable implication as to what the vote would be on a sweeping prohibitory amendment. "The farce of the prohibitory laws of Maine under the interstate commerce act that permits the shipment of liquors into that state," is cited as an argument against the amendment in Massachusetts.

Twenty years ago the people of the state had a chance to vote on a similar amendment and the vote was negative. The dissenters from the report of the committee argue that this shows the wishes of the people, while the supporters of the amendment say that the no-license vote indicates a strong change of sentiment that would probably carry such an amendment at this time. The Rev. Dr. O. P. Gifford of Brookline is reported to have said:

I hope the House and Senate will submit the amendment to the people. In a government of the people, by the people and for the people great moral questions should be submitted to them. Dealers in liquor defend their business in the open. Let the citizens take a course in ethics and morals taught by public teachers. Let us present the facts and reasons for and against the liquor traffic and let the people decide.

The fact that Massachusetts tried prohibition thirty years ago, failed, and returned to license, has nothing to do with the present generation. Scientific temperance education has given us a new citizenship. Science has taken the place of sentiment. Then Massachusetts was far ahead of the country; now she is far behind. "Remember Lot's wife, and face front."

Some favor local option. If prohibition carries, let such apply the law locally. The state is the unit of value. It is a form of selfishness to seek decency only for the little corner where you are.

Another indication of the change of sentiment in the state is the bill reported by the committee on ways and means to require the treasurers of cities and towns to pay over to the state one-half of the amount received for licenses. The fact that at present seventy-five per cent of the license fee goes to the city or town

where the license is granted is believed to be responsible for the excessive number of licenses granted in many places.¹

CENSORSHIP FOR MOVING PICTURES



A censorship of motion picture programs has been established in New York. It is without legal authority, but will be binding through the

force of public opinion and the formal consent of the trade-elements involved in the moving picture business. The censorship is a result of work which civic organizations have carried on in the field of cheap amusements for a year or more.

Its importance, if effective, can be realized from such statistics as these: There are about 400 theaters in New York city; about 340 are moving picture theaters. The daily attendance on moving picture shows is a quarter of a million, and the Sunday attendance a half-million. Of these, 100,000 daily are children, in spite of ordinances restricting their admission. In the tenement district the moving picture show has well nigh taken possession of the situation; it is driving other forms of theatrical entertainment out of the field. It comprises not only the motion picture, but the stereopticon, the choral song, and the vaudeville interlude. The newly-established censorship will have charge of the whole program of moving picture shows, and will likewise concern itself with the theater buildings themselves.

The stages by which the situation has progressed toward a voluntary censorship are interesting. Moving picture shows have multiplied with great rapidity. They have penetrated the tenement districts and abound on the thoroughfares. For years they went ahead substantially unregulated by law or by the city administration. The License Bureau which controlled them became a by-word for "graft." The structural condition of many theaters was appalling. In September last there was an exposé of the Li-

¹Both of these bills have been defeated by the Legislature.

cense Bureau and a cleaning up, but conditions had grown so offensive that an outcry against moving pictures was carried up to the mayor in December. He promptly revoked every moving picture license in the city, and this was the beginning of a legislative onslaught of which the results were excessive. The business interests involved became badly frightened, and recognized that unless a change in public opinion were effected they were threatened with virtual extermination.

Another circumstance has contributed to the present situation. The demand for cheap amusement is so insatiable and the superiority of moving pictures over other forms of cheap entertainment is so vast, that their growth has been surprising. This fact laid the emphasis rather on quantity than on quality of program. Anything seemed acceptable if only it were a motion picture. The manufacturers of pictures are scattered over Europe and America. They produce in so wholesale a manner that the inventive powers of motion picture playwrights and stage managers flag. The theaters have been unorganized and there has been no medium through which public criticism could be registered with the manufacturers. But the time has come when the public demands better pictures and when the theaters, forced by competition, demand better programs. The manufacturers themselves recognize this and thus has arisen a spontaneous demand for a common platform on which public, theater, and manufacturer can meet.

The newly-established censorship is this common platform. There is a New York State Association of Motion Picture Exhibitors, which includes the representative motion picture theaters. This association petitioned the civic bodies of New York to establish a censorship, pledged themselves to support it financially and to obey it absolutely. On the initiative of the People's Institute the following bodies joined forces to establish the censorship:

The Public Education Association, the public schools, the People's Institute, the Federation of Churches, the Woman's Municipal League, the Ethical-Social League, the

Society for the Prevention of Crime, the Neighborhood Workers' Association, the League for Political Education and the City Vigilance League.

The governing board, of which Rev. George William Knox, of the Union Theological Seminary, is chairman, controls the censorship. An executive committee of five members, two of whom are exhibitors of motion pictures, does the censoring. For field inspectors the Board of Censorship depends on volunteer assistants and on the co-operation of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, the City Vigilance League, and other societies. The board has begun operations already, in the following manner:

There are three elements in the motion picture business—the manufacturer, the exchange, and the theater. All new pictures are inspected before being issued from the offices of the manufacturers and importers. There are over 3,000 old "subjects" on the market, and these are being gradually stored in the offices of the exchanges. Most of the old pictures will have passed out of circulation before the Board of Censorship gets to them. In addition, the vaudeville features, etc., and the structural conditions in theaters, will have to be passed on. Here comes a knotty problem, for there are hundreds of theaters and they cannot be watched continually. The exhibitors themselves are expected to help in this matter, and the Board of Censorship intends to make a few examples and thus penalize the production of bad vaudeville and the maintenance of unsanitary or otherwise unsafe buildings. Peculiarly vicious is the Yiddish vaudeville given in many lower East Side picture shows which will be combated by the law, and by expulsion from the Motion Picture Association and from the white list of the Board of Censorship.

On another side, the censorship has national bearings. The manufacturers of about two-thirds of the pictures that reach the American market, the Motion Pictures Patents Company, have established a committee on censorship of manufacturers which has agreed to subordinate itself to the Board of Censorship in New York city. It will sift all pictures designed for the entire country. The board for the present will work primari-

ly at the moral end of the censorship and the manufacturers' committee at the artistic end. In addition, the independent manufacturers, all European, are roused to the need of better programs.

INDUSTRIAL BASIS FOR SOCIAL INTERPRE- TATION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Statement more than argument is needed to establish the vital and essential connection between effective philanthropy, morality, or civic progress and industrial conditions and relations. The connection of industry with all these spheres of life and effort is often causal, always conditioning. Livelihood and life are indistinguishably identified in fact if not in our theories of either. There is no such immorality as that which so divorces life from livelihood that the way of making a living is not the way to live. There is no such demoralization as that which fairly disintegrates everyone able to work who has no opportunity or inclination to earn a living.

Philanthropy's first principle is industrial self-help. To the diagnosis of dependency, the knowledge of industrial conditions is recognized to be as essential as personally to know the dependent individual or family. The standard of living in the industrial class to which a needy family belongs is more and more seen to be the test of the method and the measure, as well as of the human considerateness of relief. The first inquiry of the charity worker is for the claim upon the industrial insurance of the union or friendly society, of the employers' benefit or state guarantee against total loss from accident, sickness, unemployment or death. Industrial casualties are among the deepest tap-roots of dependency. Occupational diseases are newly accepted terms of both medical and social pathology. Housing and health are indissolubly connected by the rate of wages. Child labor is economic waste. Unrestricted hours and unregulated conditions of women's toil

tell the toll of blighted births, degenerate lives, and untimely deaths in our vital statistics.

Both personal and civic safety and progress are more and more dependent upon the public control and regulation of living and working conditions. Philanthropy, morality, state-craft, and even religion are confronted by the industrial situation in every way they turn. Those interested or engaged in promoting social, civic and moral efficiency are forced to face the results of these economic forces resident in industrial conditions and relations.

But where to look for the facts and the spirit which interpret the sources, the motives, the movements and the measures which produced these results in personal destiny and public development, most people are at a loss to know. The strike and lock-out are for the most part isolated in thought and judgment from the conditions that occasioned them, if not from the consequences produced by them. The organizations of labor and capital alike are too often accounted for and condemned because of the personalities which aggravate their differences, when they ought to be explained, if not justified, by the economic necessities which make them inevitable. Disturbances of industrial relationships and the public peace are intensified by being detached in our knowledge from the world-wide forces of which they are but the local manifestation. Industrial conflict is not due to the last agitator or the latest cut in wages. The labor movement has a history, a literature, institutions of its own and a powerful press. Whole classes of men and their organized movements are hopelessly misunderstood and misinterpreted by not being allowed to interpret themselves and make themselves understood by those outside their own ranks. Nothing is more dangerous in a democracy than to allow a sense of detachment to divide a class from the mass, a craft or an individual from the community of interests in the working world, personal and private instincts and ideals from public welfare.

There is therefore a wide field and a

practical function lying between social aims and efforts and industrial conditions and relations. No individual or public interest can afford to leave this field unoccupied, or this function unfulfilled. And yet it is for the most part virgin soil, which this magazine was one of the first to cultivate. What *Charities and The Commons* has attempted to occupy, *THE SURVEY* intends to possess. The field for possession is just those increasingly discerned, but illy defined connections between industrial conditions and relationships and the social, moral and civic interests and efforts of our times, which have been concretely referred to. This function of the magazine is to survey the industrial field first of all for its actual facts, and by understanding and interpreting them, to lay the basis for intelligent and constructive action, for the improvement of living and working conditions and relationships. With this single aim our industrial viewpoint will be taken and maintained, never to promote special privilege at public expense, nor the supremacy of any class over the mass, but always to assert that community of interests, in sharing the costs and values of which the highest individual and public ideals are to be attained.

To this end our industrial survey will seek to let those representing variant interests, conflicting classes and contending ideals interpret themselves through such personal or public expression as may best represent them. Representative trade journals and the publications of employers' associations and of the trade unions and federated labor press, which are astonishingly little read or known except by the large bodies of men whose craft or class interests they serve, will be faithfully read and reflected in these columns. Information of news value will be found in the Common Welfare notes from week to week. Monthly summaries of industrial events will be continued in the magazine numbers. Representing the Association for Labor Legislation, Prof. John R. Commons will continue in the mid-monthly numbers the survey of the whole field of industrial legislation at home and abroad. Signed editorial reviews and

constructive criticisms of industrial issues and literature will frankly and fearlessly state the opinions of the writers.

It is too much to expect that all will agree and that none will be offended in the handling of this most delicate and difficult, because most divisive, material falling within the field of industrial interests and action. Our readers will not only want to be informed of views differing from their own, but will not fail to appreciate honest effort to place them at the point of view where they may see and judge for themselves. It cannot be possible that any intelligent person can advocate or defend a policy of silence, indifference, or suppression in such a journal as this, regarding even the most radical ideals and theories of the social order which are actually influencing the lives and acts and votes of multitudes of men. To be intelligently opposed or counteracted they must at least be understood. To be understood they must be interpreted from within.

If we may inform and inspire any part of our American citizenship, especially those who are working for others, so that their community of interests will become the basis for their action, the peace-making, progress-prompting purpose of our industrial survey will be fulfilled and justified.

PETROSINO AND THE BLACK HAND

GINO C. SPERANZA

Member New York Bar

The death of Giuseppe Petrosino, lieutenant in the New York Police Department, proves anew the tragic fact that reforms seem impossible except by the sacrifice of human lives; whether it be in sanitation and housing conditions, in industrial methods, or in the larger field of government, of social life and of international relations, men must die through avoidable sickness, through avoidable risks, through avoidable wars, before public sentiment becomes sufficiently aroused to patient examination and effective action.

Our country, young and powerful

though it is, cannot hope successfully to cope, by its unaided and inexperienced strength, with the questions arising through the influx of a large element which is not bad or undesirable but alien to, and unprepared for our body politic, for our traditions and for our habits. Immigration, in its good and especially in its bad phases, is a matter of international concern and discipline; it cannot be treated as a national question which you and I and our fellow citizens may intelligently pass upon.

We have watched the European invasion, and in a daring but thoughtless spirit of youth, have said we could meet and turn it to our country's good. So we can. But not indiscriminately, not without taking due stock of the experience of our elders.

Lieutenant Petrosino went, single-handed, to fight a battle which can only be won by the patient planning and loyal co-operation of two civilized and friendly powers. He was a fearless man, a faithful servant; but he must have been ill-advised or ignorant of the means necessary to achieve the ends that he or his superiors sought.

What is the enemy he sought to fight? People on this side of the ocean have called it by various names—Mafia, Camorra, Black Hand. He was too well-informed an officer to follow popular or journalistic imaginary creations. He knew that the so-called black-handers belonged to no organization or society but had membership in that class of evil doers who naturally, like birds of a feather, tend to gravitate towards each other. *Mala Vita* is the Italian phrase for that evil and socially parasitic class which we call the "criminal element" or the "underworld." It exists in every country, and against it each nation seeks to defend itself by its police systems and its courts.

What Officer Petrosino understood is what so many of us have failed to appreciate, that if we wish to make our social defense against alien criminals more effective we must learn the rules of war and seek the co-operation of those strategists who know this special enemy and its ways better than we do. The obstacles and difficulties in the way are many.

First of all in our social defense against the criminal element, native or imported, we too often overlook that it has "brains." Several years ago in writing on the social defense against crime I said:

There is a great deal of misplaced sentimentality in regard to criminals and an erroneous popular belief as to their limitations for mischief. Criminologists, prison-wardens and prosecutors tell us that many of the enemies of law and order are men of great cunning and daring, keen to adopt new methods and endowed with a "patient inventiveness" backed up by "reckless audacity"; they have been known to wait a long time in

ingly easier modes of communication and travel; that the under world, as well as the upper world, feels the breaking down of national barriers—and is quick to profit by it.

Secondly, when the social defense is against the criminal element of a people different from our own, the advice and constant co-operation of the government to which such peoples belong is indispensable. We have been suspicious of foreign co-operation and too self-satisfied that our methods were "the very best." Why should we be suspicious?



HY MEYER IN THE NEW YORK TIMES, MARCH 21.

the careful preparation of their misdeeds and have often shown remarkable administrative ability.¹

It is with this fact in view that countries older than ours have called to their police service well-trained men and raised such service to a profession and a career worthy of the ambition of cultivated men. The prefects of police of continental Europe are government officials of long training and high rank. Nor must we overlook that dishonest people as well as honest ones, criminals as well as missionaries, take advantage of the increas-

¹Society's Defense against the Criminal, *Albany Law Journal*, January, 1901. Also Major Arthur Griffiths's *Mysteries of Police and Crime*, and my *The Coefficients of Impunity in the American Law Register*, Vol. 39, N. S. No. 11.

Can anyone seriously maintain that Italy, for instance, has any interest in "dumping" her criminals abroad? Can any thinking person really believe that Italian statesmanship could be so inconceivably shortsighted that it would jeopardize the interests, safety and influence of millions of its honest immigrants by assisting or encouraging the exodus of its malefactors? As a matter of fact, what has Italy tried to do to check its criminals and to prevent their becoming international charges? Its criminal procedure, without the benefit of bail for the accused, and its absence of our refinements of legal presumptions and legal evidence, would shock us as too harsh against even a

criminal; its penal system which makes a violator of the law a marked man for the police forces for practically the rest of his life and registers and controls his movements from place to place, would impress us by its severity. Its wonderfully organized police power centralized in the Ministry of the Interior, with its trained men of the *questura* and the admirable military-constabulary of the *carabinieri* corps would convince us, if we studied it, of its efficiency.

All this for protection at home. What for protection abroad? It was the Italian government that called an international conference to fight the anarchists when anarchy changed from philosophy to action. It was the Italian government of its own initiative that enacted stringent laws forbidding an emigrant from leaving the kingdom without a passport, which official certificate cannot be issued without an examination by the local authorities of the penal record of the applicant. It was the Italian government that proposed as far back as 1868 that our extradition treaty should stipulate that "The two contracting parties agree to communicate to each other, respectively, all sentences passed by tribunals or courts of the one state for crimes or offences of *whatever nature*, committed upon their territory by subjects or citizens of the other," a stipulation which now we see would have been all to our advantage but which Secretary Seward refused.¹ It has been the Italian government that has repeatedly endeavored, at much expense, to extradite some of its criminals who have come here but whose surrender was rendered impossible by the strict interpretation given by our courts to the treaty provisions regarding the character of the evidence that must be presented. One of these alleged fugitives the day after his discharge applied to the federal courts for citizenship; the discharge of another (who has since disappeared) was hailed in the public press with head lines, "Italy Can't Have X," that sounded like the "triumph of the oppressed."

What should we do, for something

must be done to check that most cowardly and sinister of crimes—blackmail and extortion? What should we do to strengthen our social defense against the *mala vita* from abroad that has been added to the problems of our native criminal element?

We must divest ourselves of our pride and of our prejudices. We must not send or allow brave officers to go to their death in inspiring but impractical skirmishes. Let us plan a warfare equal to the resourcefulness and power of the evil we seek to destroy. Let us be humble enough to accept allies, and unprejudiced enough to trust our allies in a cause that is of common interest. Wholesale restrictive immigration-measures will bar out the good; they have never kept out the bad. Let us rather make the existing laws less ingenuous; let us not ask the arriving immigrant to tell us "under oath" if he is a criminal; I believe the only Italian who said yes to such query, was an honest immigrant who mistook his detention at Ellis Island as an incarceration, and gave that, as in fact it was, as his only criminal past. Let us ask for the official record of the immigrant as certified in the passport issued by a civilized government whom we should trust. And if a mountain-shepherd from the Abruzzi sails to New York from Hamburg, or Havre, or Marseilles instead of from the Italian port nearest to his town let us not consider it an invasion of the sacredness of personal privacy at least to inquire if not to watch. There is often a reason. Then, let us not be so sentimentally afraid of a "secret police"; the under world works in the dark and we must fight it in the dark. For Petrosino to sail on an Italian boat from New York where every dock laborer knew of his going was absurdly to undervalue the watchfulness of the enemy. A "secret police" and "secret" funds are absolutely necessary; we should trust the men we put in power to use such dangerous weapons with much judgment and care, or we should not clothe them with power.

We should have more and better trained men for detective and police duty among our alien population. The "drag

¹MSS. Department of State. Notes from Italian Leg., Vol. IV.

net" that brings in a lot of "dangerously armed Sicilians" after a terrible tragedy like Petrosino's, makes good newspaper copy, inflames popular passion and prejudice, but leaves the battle unwon. It is too easy a way, and the only way to win is by hard-headed planning and patient, skillful operating.

Nor must we do our detective work in the newspapers, in the way that we are having trial of cases by the press.

Lastly, we must seek and offer co-operation. We should seek international conferences and agreements and give faith and credit to the requisitions and requests of other governments. Diplomacy is not a "smart game" but a means of facilitating the exchange of views, of understanding needs, and of finding means and ways.

The death of one brave man calls not for vengeance and passion but for thought.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ECONOMIC INTERFERENCE

SIMON N. PATTEN

Progress and prosperity are the logical and almost inevitable outcome of economic forces operating in America today. A vast extent of territory, a marvelous fertility of soil, a great variety of climate, an abundance of mineral wealth, inland water courses and water power have all united to make America a land of infinite possibilities. If progress is general an increase of income will follow the increase of adjustment through the operation of general economic laws. There will then be a diffusion of income in ways that better the condition of all classes and bring them nearer a position of equality. Progress, adjustment, the diffusion of income and the growth in social equality are thus all bound up together and follow as links in the chain of events put in motion by the increase of resources. That economist is best who shows the worker how to keep his dinner pail full just as that physician is best who keeps the most people well. Health is normal, disease is abnormal.

The primary concern of the student of medicine must therefore be of the laws of sanitation and hygiene. His interest in disease and methods of cure is only secondary.

Prosperity is also normal; the lack of it is abnormal. The chief function of the economist is therefore to increase the welfare of the nation, to indicate methods of increasing efficiency, to bring into fuller play all the forces in the community which are now making for progress. He must, to accomplish this, cause the nation to realize that a higher self-interest demands such a use of the present that our future prosperity is not endangered. The laws of economic health and hygiene include such a care of the rising generation and of present resources that we neither lose a third of our male bread winners between the ages of twenty-five and fifty, nor consume the products of our forests three times more rapidly than we replace them. Our highest prosperity requires not old age pensioners but old age workers; not hillsides devastated with marvelous rapidity, but a continued renewal of the virgin growth. If at any time, the wheels of progress are being slackened by a shortsighted policy, or by the exercise of undue monopoly power, the economist should point out a way of escape. If periodically our financial system breaks down or retards the onward march of progress, the economist should not rest content until he has devised a more perfect system. At all times his first interest is in prosperity, and his chief function to see that all the forces making for prosperity have ample scope to act. The nation gains more by increasing national prosperity than by emphasizing problems of distribution or the evil resulting therefrom. Just as the physician, though striving primarily to keep society in good health, must stamp out a pestilence here and an epidemic there, so the economist must turn from his larger field relating to prosperity and take cognizance of maladjustments in the social structure. Though the exception, he dare no more ignore the existence of economic maladjustments than the physician dare overlook human suffering in his search for laws of sanitation and hy-

giene. If the physician is to fulfill his complete function, he must not only be able to prescribe rules of hygiene, but he must also be able to diagnose disease and prescribe specific remedies. If the economist has a like function, he should have some principle to guide him in this deviation from the general rules that determine his action. When is he justified in turning his attention from the general problems of prosperity to the specific problems of maladjustment? What is to be his test that something is wrong in the social organism? How is he to know that the evil is of such a nature that it lies within his province or power to cure?

The answer to these questions demands a clearer view of the relation of adjustment to maladjustment. Adjustment is the harmony that has been worked out between man and his environment. It is measured in the growth and regularity of production and results in the reduction of costs and the increase of income. In contrast with this, non-adjustment represents the difficulties yet to be overcome. How adjustments have been secured and how non-adjustments are to be overcome are parts of the same problem and the methods of the one are those of the other. What is yet to be done involves the same principles as that which has already been done. What has made prosperity will if further applied make more prosperity. There is no need of interference with general economic laws to secure it.

In contrast to either of these, maladjustment is an actual reversal of progress. It means the loss of something already acquired, and on the face of things there seems to be an easy test of its presence. Progress means an increase of income; maladjustment should be measured by a decrease. Were there no movements of population from nation to nation or from country to city and if we had reliable statistics of wages and prices this test could be applied and might serve as the basis upon which a workable principle of economic interference could rest. As it is, however, nothing but confusion results from attempts to apply it. Each adherent of some pet scheme finds a way of arranging his facts and disarranging or even distorting those of his oppo-

nents so that his argument seems convincing. In view of this situation another method is better fitted for removing the difficulties in the way of measuring maladjustments. The proposed method will have a special justification if it also prove to be a surer test of maladjustment than income. The reversal of progress may be measured objectively in the loss of material welfare or subjectively in arrested development. Reduce the welfare of any class and they fail to come to their full development or approach it less completely than they formerly did. Maladjustment is thus the same as arrested development and degeneration. According to the latest knowledge in the field of biology, the human germ cell contains at birth all the possibilities of a perfect development, but a particular environment may be of such a nature as to arrest the development at any stage of progress. The result from the race viewpoint is some form of degeneracy.

Like pain, degeneration is a danger signal that something is wrong. If on examination it can be proven that the degeneration lies in some economic handicap, *i. e.*, is environmental, then the economist may feel assured that the case comes within his province. An additional test however is needed before he diverts his attention from general problems of prosperity to the removal of misery. It would be futile for the economist to use up his energy in combating degeneration if its causes were not specific and removable.

Briefly stated, then, the principle of economic interference may be summarized as follows. First, the test for the need of interference lies in the presence of some form of degeneration. Second, the cause of the degeneration must lie in some economic handicap and third, this handicap must be specific and removable. In the late Boer War, for example, the recruiting stations around Manchester rejected nine out of every ten applicants because of poor physique. Three generations in the cotton mills had led to unmistakable marks of degeneration. Here, then, was a cause for interference. Degeneration was present, its cause lay in an economic handicap which had forced

the children at early years into industry and the cause was both specific and removable.

A visit to any slum district reveals countless cases of degeneration the cause of which lies in the unhealthy moral and physical conditions of the congested district. The cause, in other words, is environmental. It is furthermore specific and removable. Society has the power to admit sunlight and air to such districts. The economist is therefore justified in taking steps looking to better tenement house conditions and a better general distribution of population. It is now being recognized that poverty is a case of maladjustment, and should be viewed like disease, as abnormal.

Will poverty meet the test for economic interference which we have just laid down? That poverty causes degeneration needs no elaboration. The poverty of the poor literally leads to their destruction. Does its cause lie in some economic handicap? This we must admit unless we are willing to agree that differences at birth and not differences in opportunity determine the efficiency and success of the adult. Can we go still further and apply our third test, *viz.*, are the causes specific and removable? Here there is ground for a fair difference in opinion. Suffice it at this point merely to indicate the drift of scientific thought in this field. The first classification of causes adopted by the National Conference of Charities and Correction had twenty-two headings (drink, immorality, shiftlessness and inefficiency, crime and dishonesty, etc., were included). In 1899 the classification was reduced to two main headings, "causes within the family" and "causes outside the family," with seven or eight sub-divisions under each. In 1906 Dr. Lee K. Frankel, at the national conference, suggested a classification of only four divisions: ignorance, industrial inefficiency, exploitation of labor and defects in governmental supervision of the welfare of citizens. In a recent number of the *Political Science Quarterly* Miss Brandt points out that logic demands the reduction of these four cases to two, cutting out ignorance and inefficiency as results. She maintains

that "to some form of exploitation or to some defect in governmental efficiency most of the circumstances which we commonly regard as causes may be ascribed." Whether this classification is too simple or not is perhaps open to question. But in any event, there is much to be gained by viewing poverty as a disease, having its causes in a poor environment and its cures in an improvement of environing conditions. In so far then, as the main causes of poverty are environmental, specific and removable, they come within the purview of economics and demand the attention of economists.

One might multiply examples but those given indicate the thought underlying the principle of economic interference. There is no fundamental reason why degeneration should continue in our land any more than that plagues should revisit it year after year. But as yellow fever did not cure itself, neither will degeneration. The extermination of the scourge of yellow fever first required considerable expert attention. Science had to be called in and public opinion had to be focussed on its extermination. It is now claimed that yellow fever has visited our shores for the last time. In like manner, it is the economist's function to focus public attention on those specific evils in society, like overcrowding, overwork and premature employment, which are of such a nature that they will not cure themselves. He must be instrumental in crystallizing public opinion so that one maladjustment after another gives way to the determined effort of society to improve conditions. Clearly seen evils can be effectively removed. This has been true of yellow fever. It is the case with tuberculosis and it will probably be the case with intemperance. The economist must stand in the front ranks of those who are moulding public opinion along these lines. Although a specialist, he aspires to be a power in the affairs of the nation. If public opinion does not feel his influence, if newspapers do not reflect his opinions, and if legislatures do not crystallize into law the results of his experience, he has failed to justify his position as one of the forces moulding the affairs of to-day.

THE REACTION OF MORAL INSTRUCTION UPON SOCIAL REFORM

JANE ADDAMS

HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

Each generation of clergymen, moralists, educators, and publicists find themselves facing an inevitable dilemma, first to keep the young committed to their charge "unspotted from the world," and second to connect them with the ruthless and materialistic world all about them, in such wise, that they may make it the theater for their noblest exploits.

It is fortunate for these teachers that sometime during the "Golden Age" lying between the years of thirteen and twenty-three the most prosaic youth is seized by a new interest in remote and universal ends, and that if a clue be but given him by which he may connect his lofty aims with his daily living, he himself will drag the very heavens into the most sordid tenement. The perpetual difficulty consists in finding the clue for him and placing it in his hands, for while the greatest possible wrong is done him if this expanding period of human life is not seized upon for spiritual purposes, at the same time, if the teaching is too detached from life it does not result in any psychic impulsion at all. Youth invariably becomes impatient of a creed which does not afford a guide to actual conduct, and it must be grand, vague and noble conduct at that!

We are obliged to admit, however, that in many cases both the school and the church have failed to perform this office for him, and that thousands of young people in every great city are either frankly hedonistic, or are vainly attempting to work out for themselves a satisfactory code of morals. They cast about in libraries, in settlements and in theaters for the clue which shall connect their loftiest hopes with their actual living.

Several years ago a committee of lads came to see me in order to complain of a certain high-school principal because "He never talks to us about life." When urged to make a clearer statement they added, "He never asks us what we are going to be, we can't get a word out of

him, excepting lessons and keeping quiet in the halls."

Of the dozens of young women who have begged me to make a connection for them between their dreams of social usefulness and their actual living, I recall one of the many whom I had sent back to her clergyman, returning with this remark: "His only suggestion was that I should be responsible every Sunday for fresh flowers upon the altar. I did that when I was fifteen and liked it then but when you have come back from college and are twenty-two years old, it doesn't quite fit in with the vigorous efforts you have been told are necessary, in order to make our social relations more Christian."

That old desire to achieve, to capture the world, seizes the ardent youth of today with a stern command to bring about juster social conditions. They are impatient with "rose water for the plague" prescriptions, and insist upon something strenuous and vital. It would seem a golden opportunity for those to whom is committed the task of spiritual instruction, for to preach and seek justice in human affairs is one of the oldest obligations of religion and morality. All that would be necessary would be to attach this teaching to the contemporary world, and really to believe that "if the hydraulic force of religion could be turned into conduct, there is nothing which it could not accomplish."

The particular faith from which it is preached is not so important as that it should be connected with actual social movements, in such wise, that the eager youth might feel a tug upon his faculties and a sense of participation in the moral life about him. The youth of Jewish birth has been taught that prophets and statesmen for three thousand years declared Jehovah to be a God of Justice who hated oppression and desired righteousness more than sacrifice. But there is no real appeal to his spirit of moral adventure

unless he is told that the most stirring attempts to translate justice into the modern social order have been inaugurated and carried forward by men of his own race, and that until he joins in the contemporary manifestations of that attempt, he is recreant to his highest traditions and obligations.

The Christian youth has been taught that man's heart-breaking adventure to find justice in the order of the universe, moved the God of Heaven himself to send a mediator in order that the justice man craves and the mercy by which alone he can endure his weakness, might be reconciled, but he will not make the doctrine his own until he reduces it to action and tries at one and the same time to "do justice" and to "love mercy," realizing in his own experience that the order can never be reversed.

If your youth calls himself an "evolutionist" (it is rather hard to find a name for this youth, but there are thousands of him and a fine fellow he often is), he knows of that long struggle beginning with the earliest tribal effort to establish just relations between man and man, and that after all justice can be worked out upon this earth only by those who will not tolerate a wrong to the feeblest member of the community, and that it will become a social force in proportion only as men steadfastly desire it and establish it.

If the young people who have been subjected to this varied religious instruction have also been stirred to action, or rather if the instruction has been given validity because it has been attached to conduct, then it may be comparatively easy to bring about certain social reforms in America, which now seem so impossible.

The whole agitation for state industrial insurance may afford a good example. In one year in the German Empire one hundred thousand children were cared for through money paid from the state insurance fund to their widowed mothers and invalided fathers. Certainly we shall have to bestir ourselves if we would care for the victims of the industrial order as well as other nations do, and it ought to be easy to exhort a care for the widow and the fatherless from the point of view of all religions, or from that

evolutionary standpoint which asserts that a sound physique is the only basis of progress, and that to guard the mothers of the race is simple sanity.

And yet from lack of preaching of these varied creeds we do not unite for action because we are not stirred to act at all, and protective legislation in America is shamefully inadequate.

We say in despair sometimes that because we are a people who hold such varied creeds there are not enough of one religious faith to secure anything, but the truth is that it is easy to unite for action people whose hearts have once been filled by the fervor of that willing devotion, which religion always generates in the human breast, from whatever creed it may be preached. It is comparatively easy to enlarge a moral concept, but extremely difficult to give it to an adult for the first time as those of you, for instance, who have had experience with certain legislators can testify. We are failing to meet the requirements of our industrial life with courage and success simply because we do not realize that unless we establish some of that humane legislation, which has its roots in a consideration for human life, our industrialism itself will fall behind. It is suffering from inbreeding, growing ever more unrestrained and more ruthless. It would seem obvious that in order to secure relief in a community dominated by commercial ideals, that an appeal must be made to the old moral sanctions for human conduct, that we must reach motives more substantial and enduring than the mere fleeting experiences of one phase of modern industry which vainly imagines that its growth would be curtailed if the health of its employees were guarded by the state.

And yet when we attempt to appeal to these old sanctions, the conclusion is often forced upon us that they have not been ingrained in the present generation, that they have never been worked over into character, that they cannot be relied upon when they are brought into contact with the arguments of commercialism, that the colors of the flag flying over the fort of our spiritual resources wash out and disappear when the storm actually breaks.

It seems sometimes as if the church and the school, because they are so reluctant

to admit that conduct is the supreme and efficient test of moral validity, had turned over to commercialism itself the teachings upon our most vexed social problems. To the credit of commercialism be it said that it has boldly stepped in and so far as people will pay for it, is entering the field as moral instructor.

There is no doubt that we are at the beginning of a period when the stage is becoming the most successful popular teacher in public morals. Many times the perplexed hero reminds one of Emerson's description of Margaret Fuller, "I don't know where I am going, follow me," but nevertheless the stage is dealing with these moral themes in which the public is most interested. This may have come about largely through the very exigencies of dramatic art. The playwrights must at least reduce their creeds to action, they must translate their beliefs into interesting conversation, if they are to be played at all.

While many young people and older ones as well go to the theater if only to see represented and to hear discussed the themes which seem to them so tragically important, there is no doubt that what they hear there, flimsy and poor as it often is, easily becomes their actual moral guide. In moments of moral crisis, they turn to the sayings of the hero who found himself in a similar plight. The sayings may not be profound, but they are at least applicable to conduct. It would be a striking result if the teachings of the contemporaneous stage should at last afford the moral platform upon which the various members of the community would unite for common action in matters of social reform. This platform would be adopted, not because the teachings of the stage had of necessity been fine, but because they had made an appeal for justice and fair play in our social relations and had at the same time reduced this appeal to suggestions for actual conduct. A dozen plays are on the stage at the present moment whose titles might easily be translated into a proper heading for a sociological lecture or a sermon:

1. The Battle might be called The Need for Model Tenements.
2. The Melting Pot, The Value of Immigration.
3. The Easiest Way, The Entrenchments of The Social Evil.

4. The Strong People, A Strike and Its Unfair Suppression.

5. The Man of the Hour, An Effort to Combat Municipal Corruption.

6. The Lion and The Mouse, The Ruthless Methods of Big Business.

7. The Dawn of a To-Morrow, Optimism as a Rectifier of Social Wrongs.

8. The Third Degree, The Sweating in Police Courts Resulting in False Confessions.

9. Salvation Nell has been called rightly or wrongly The Divine Comedy of the Poor.

10. The Writing on the Wall, An Exposition of the Methods of Trinity Church in Administering Its Property.

11. Sampson, The Results of Frenzied Finance.

12. The Flag Station, The Accidents Resulting from Long Hours of Labor.

This list does not even mention the plays of Ibsen, Shaw, and Hauptman, which deal so directly with moral issues that the moralists themselves wince under their teachings and declare them brutal.

Educators, moralists, clergymen, publicists, all of us forget how very early we are in the experiment of founding a first civilization in this trying climate of America, and that we are making the experiment in the most materialistic period of all history, having as our last court of appeal against that materialism, only the wonderful and inexplicable instinct for justice which resides in the heart of man. This instinct may be cultivated or neglected as we choose to give it opportunity for expression, and it is never so irresistible as when the heart is young.

It is as if we ignored a wistful creature who walked through our city streets calling out, "I am the spirit of youth, with me all things are possible." We fail to understand what he wants or even to see that he is caught into all sorts of movements for social amelioration, some of them abortive and foolish simply because they appeal to him as an effort to moralize our social relations. We may either feed the divine fire of youth with the historic ideals and dogmas which are after all the most precious possessions of the race, or we may smother it by platitudes and heavy discourses. We may listen to the young voice rising clear above the roar of industrialism and the prudent counsels of commercialism, or we may become hypnotized by the sudden new emphasis placed upon wealth and power and forget the supremacy of spiritual forces in men's affairs.

CREATING THE NEWEST STEEL CITY

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

Accustomed as Americans of this day are to rapid accomplishment, not one who visits the suddenly created town of Gary at the southern tip of Lake Michigan fails to experience a new thrill of amazement. The story of this marvelous achievement of the steel industry has been frequently told. The purpose in these pages is not merely to repeat the wonder tale of Gary's magic growth—steel plant and town—but to present a brief sketch of the framework and structure of the place and its rising social agencies, with some impressions of how these serve the needs of the rapidly gathering population.

Gary is not quite three years old. In April, 1906, the region was a waste of rolling sand dunes sparsely covered with scrub oak and interspersed with ponds and marshes. To-day there is a great steel plant covering approximately a square mile, equipped with a made-to-



BROADWAY, CORNER OF FIFTH AVENUE,
APRIL 18, 1906.

order harbor for the great ore freighters, and a town of 12,000 inhabitants, with fifteen miles of paved streets, twenty-five miles of cement sidewalks, two million dollars' worth of residences completed and occupied, a sewer system, water and gas plants, electric lighting, a national and a state bank, six hotels, three dailies, and one weekly newspaper, two fine public schools, several substantial church edifices, ten denominations represented in church organizations, and many well appointed stores and shops handling prac-



BROADWAY, CORNER OF FIFTH AVENUE, AS IT NOW APPEARS.

Street paved with granitoid. Eighteen feet cement sidewalks. State Bank on southwest corner and Gary Land Company office on northeast corner.



GARY STATE BANK, BROADWAY AND FIFTH AVENUE.



GARY HOTEL, ONE OF SIX.

tically all the commodities that a good sized city usually needs. There are forty-six lawyers, twenty-four physicians, six dentists and two veterinarians. A thriving Commercial Club is aggressively boosting the town.

Situated on the main lines of five great trunk railroads, no less than fifty trains a day stop at Gary, to say nothing of frequent service by interurban trolleys.

This mere enumeration is enough to show an astonishing growth from the wilderness of three years ago. A visit proves far more convincing. To walk two miles along a fine business street a hundred feet in width, well paved with grani-toid, lined on both sides with eighteen foot cement sidewalks and flanked by well built fire-proof business buildings; to be told that no more land is for sale on this thoroughfare; to glance up the side streets and see block after block of attractive residences; to watch the busy crowds hurrying back and forth on Broadway; and, above all, to talk with energetic business men of the place, who

look you straight in the eye and quietly assure you that in a few more years this new capital of the steel industry will surpass Indianapolis as the largest city in Indiana—well, merely to spend a day in the place is to find incredulity vanishing as completely as the wilderness itself.

Turn northward, retrace your steps, and the underlying reason of your newly acquired faith, the economic basis of it all, takes definite shape before your eyes. Here is the real fact which gives solid substance to the community you have thus far accepted because your eyes told you to, but which until now you could not explain. At the northern terminus of Gary's Broadway is the entrance to a steel plant destined soon to be the largest in America. Here the finger of unerring calculation has located the geographical spot where greatest economy dictates the assembling of raw material, and the center of distribution for finished steel. Belief in Gary and its future as a community, then, rests upon the fundamental belief of the shrewd and farsighted men directing America's steel production, that



FIRST CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.
Dedicated March, 1909.



PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.
Soon to be dedicated.



ABANDONING "HUNKY" SHACK.

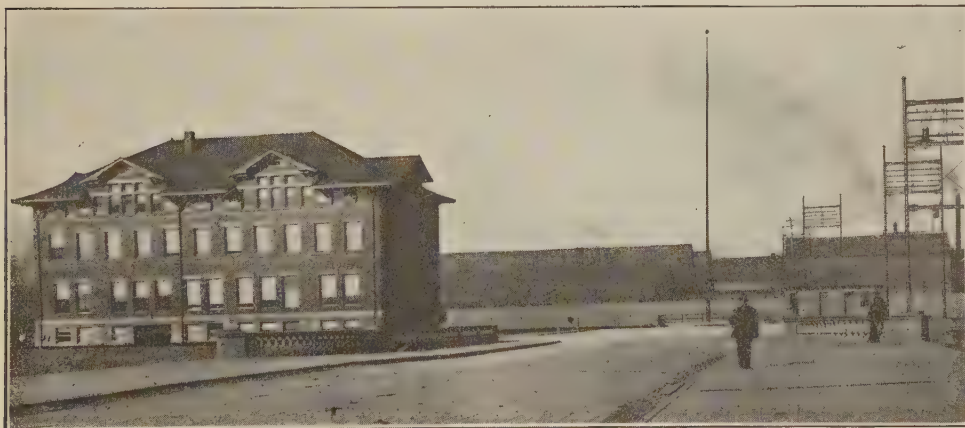
An incident in the shift of population. The gradually diminishing construction gangs have been the principal occupants of the shacks. The neoming permanent working force of the steel plant is a much higher grade of labor, occupying company houses. With its increase the proportion of foreigners is diminishing.

plants which make large use of steel, and to make some provision for the population of workers, a great tract of nearly twenty square miles has been acquired, the shore frontage on Lake Michigan being eight consecutive miles. Already located and in operation on this tract are the works of the Universal Portland Cement Company, and the repair shops of the Chicago, Lake Shore and Eastern Railroad—a Steel Corporation road. Extensive sites for large plants of the American Car and Foundry Company and the American Locomotive

Company have been selected, and in addition to these the American Steel and Wire Company, the American Bridge Company, and the American Tin Plate Company are expected soon to become members of this great industrial group.

In the various parts of the steel plant itself at least 14,000 men will be employed. The combined working force of the establishments now constructed, or whose location is practically determined, is likely to number well up toward four or five times that total.

So much for the industrial basis under-



STEEL COMPANY'S OFFICE BUILDING AS IT NOW APPEARS.

Entrance to the works is by subway under the fence.

lying Gary as a community. The conditions of work, the ever increasing part played by machinery, the lessening of manual toil, the greater precision in handling material and directing processes, the better protection of the workman at his work—all the provision for this interplay of hand and mind with machine must here be left without mention.

What of Gary, the town, and the community of people? To sketch its rise and structure is the purpose of this article. To readers familiar with the Pittsburgh Survey and its thorough-going method, the present article will be seen to be merely a fragmentary suggestion that here at Gary is the opportunity for a striking comparative study. The Pittsburgh Survey was a close range analysis of the social, civic, and industrial conditions of the Pennsylvania steel district. It not only "blue printed" the present Pittsburgh region but in some measure traced the incoming flow of peoples and the gradual evolution of conclusions. It took account of a community wherein the steel industry grew piecemeal by adding this part and that process—its growth continually subject to the more or less rigid conditions imposed by a long established city. The growth of the various plants was, in most cases, not so rapid as to require any special housing provision other than that which haphazardly might be supplied from time to time by the company or outsiders. In some of the plants themselves, the installation of larger and larger machinery and more extensive trackage was not accompanied by any increase in the area covered. Under these conditions the leeway and "give" were wrrenched from the human element. If tracks were needed in a passageway previously used only by workmen afoot, the tracks came in, no additional passageway was provided, and the workmen began dodging the shrieking little locomotives as best they could.

Here in Gary all is different. Planned at the outset on an enormous scale, it was unnecessary even remotely to consider space limitations. The visitor is impressed with the elbow room, and the

absence of a dingy clutter such as characterizes the average Pittsburgh steel mill. Men have light in which to see their work, room in which to do it, and an orderly arrangement that means as much for safety as any of the protection devices which have been installed.

In Gary, the town, too, there was absolutely unhampered opportunity to arrange the streets, provide the fundamental necessities of community life, determine the character of its houses and predestine the lines of growth, all in the best and most enlightened way. The growth of the town through the various stages of sand dunes, tents and shacks, the latter made out of boards, tar paper, canvas and anything else at hand, to the present community as briefly outlined at the beginning of this article, is no less bewildering—and in many respects is even more interesting—than the creation of the great mill. The Gary of to-day, with all its substantial buildings, shows many evidences of the successive stages of its development. Many of the shacks hastily thrown together are still occupied by the workmen and immigrant laborers who have been engaged in the construction, and several tents, reinforced by a few boards and a little banking of sand against their walls as a feeble protection against winter cold, are yet serving as habitations.

The officials of the steel company say frankly that the building of the town was incidental, that their main concern was to construct a steel plant, and that city-making was a side issue into which necessity alone drove them. They must have a place for their employes to live. This could not be expected to develop at all proportionately to the sudden need, unless the company assumed much of the responsibility. Moreover, a haphazard town would certainly prove an inefficient one in serving the daily life and needs of the men whose brains and muscle mean the real ongo of the mill. An inefficient town, therefore, in some degree would throw a paralyzing spell into this place designed to be the very citadel of economy and efficiency in steel production. A



"KIRKVILLE"—HOUSES INHABITED BY EMPLOYEES OF REPAIR SHOPS, CHICAGO, LAKE SHORE AND EASTERN R. R. They contain four, five or six rooms and the rent is fourteen to twenty dollars a month.

JEFFERSON PUBLIC SCHOOL, COST \$80,000. Water tower on park site in background.

GARY'S BEST RESIDENCES. The superintendent of the steel plant lives in the house in the foreground.

BLOCK OF HIGH GRADE RESIDENCES. Houses of the best paid men in steel plant and Gary's better-to-do business and professional men. MUNICIPAL BUILDING. Contract already let.

wholesome town was recognized as essential.

The Gary Land Company, a subsidiary corporation of the United States Steel Corporation, was formed to secure the great tract of land to serve the present and long future needs of steel plant, town, and subsidiary manufacturing interests. Upon this company was thus thrown the work of making the town. The holdings of the land company form a strip along Lake Michigan, extending from Indiana Harbor eastward some eight miles, if land now to be acquired is included, and averaging two miles in width—about two and one-half miles wide at the site of plant and town. Almost in the center of this strip is the mill. At the latter's eastern edge is the harbor slip, 250 feet wide, extending over half a mile in from the shore, affording berth for half-a-dozen 12,000-ton ore freighters and equipped with a 750-foot turning basin at its inner terminus. Just west of the mill are the repair yards and shops of the Chicago, Lake Shore and Eastern Railroad. Adjoining them on the south is the site selected for the great plant of the American Car and Foundry Company. East of the mill and just across the harbor slip extensive coke ovens to serve the mill are contemplated. South of these and southeast of the mill is the site determined within the last few weeks for the big works of the American Locomotive Company.

Directly south of the mill is the so-called subdivision no. 1 laid out by the Gary Land Company. The company itself has erected 506 dwellings and is selling lots for business and residential purposes, subject to certain restrictions which will be detailed later. Subdivision no. 1 is the only part of its holdings which has been plotted into lots by the company. Adjoining subdivision no. 1 on the south are smaller tracts owned by real estate dealers, who are rapidly selling the lots they have plotted. It will be seen at once that Gary subdivision no. 1 is the most central position with reference to the mill and other plants of the town.

The street plan of this subdivision and

of the others thus far laid out, is the old rectangular checkerboard system, without the slightest variation from its rigid lines. In this, as in many other matters, the character of Gary's development is naturally being determined by the company, controlling as it does the most important portion of the town. Enquiry as to whether any street plan other than the rectangular checkerboard was considered, makes it evident that, while some thought was given to the subject by the company, no expert advice was sought from professional city planners. There was very little in the region's topography to suggest the desirability of curved street lines, either from artistic motive or from the economic desire to avoid expensive levelling. Indeed the convenience and attractiveness of the rectangular street scheme of one of Chicago's best known and oldest suburbs was instanced to the enquirer in justification of Gary's street plan.

Beautiful trees line the streets of the suburb referred to and form no small part of its attractiveness. It is therefore interesting to learn of the pains the company is taking to find out by experiment what species of trees will prove most satisfactory in Gary's sandy soil. The citizens of the town, too, are alive to the desirability of tree planting. With more zeal than reason they recently agitated for an ordinance making tree planting compulsory, but readily saw the wisdom of delay, pending the experiments of the company and the working out of some scientific and harmonious scheme.

The whole street scheme of Gary—in fact the whole plan of the place—hangs on the main thoroughfare, Broadway. The idea of a civic center with a grouping of public buildings seems not to have occurred to those who designed the town. With the steel plant foremost in mind, and the town incidental, it is natural that the main fact in Gary's town plan is a broad street leading straight south from the mill entrance. Already it is paved three miles and more. Up this great artery in the morn-

ing, and down it at night, sweep the throngs of workers.

Even with the mill entrance as the focal point, the question arises whether some advantage might not have been gained through at least two diagonal streets, one leading southeast and the other southwest. Economy is the keynote in Gary industrialism. In the plant itself, the right angle was abolished in locating the various units. "The placing of these," to quote a recent article¹ on Gary's engineering achievement, "was dictated by the speed a laboring locomotive can make on a curving switch track. . . . Instead of setting the blast furnaces parallel or at right angles to the tracks serving them, they were placed at an angle of twenty-two degrees, allowing a 200-foot radius for the entering switch." This to relieve the locomotive and achieve speed. The moment wasted, the break in continuity of process, and the unnecessary loss of heat which must be regained—all spell inefficiency. This same principle seems not to have been worked out in the street scheme of the town. The sum of moments lost and communication retarded by the necessity of always travelling a right angle seems not to have been computed.

If any advantage might be found in the two diagonal streets suggested, the same advantage would in varying degree be found in others leading from the gates of the other plants now building, and yet to be built on the sites already fixed, to the parts of town which under the existing plan can only be reached by travelling a right angle. All of this takes into consideration only the ease and directness of access between work and home; a few diagonal streets—perhaps the same ones—might greatly facilitate the natural relations of one part of town with the rest.

The argument which is advanced with more or less weight against any variation from the rectangular street plan is that property must be cut up into pieces of awkward shape and consequently lesser value. If this loss can be shown to

more than balance the saving in time and directness to be gained by a few diagonal streets, the present street plan of Gary will of course square to the efficiency test to which everything else in plant and town seems to be put.

Efficiency in town, it has already been said, was recognized as a factor in the efficiency of the steel plant. This town efficiency will be made apparent many times in this article. The efficiency of the street plan is called into question at this point because the street plan is part of that fundamental town structure upon which all else rests.

Broadway, which is 100 feet wide, and Fifth avenue, which crosses Broadway at right angles in the northern part of subdivision no. 1 and is 80 feet wide, are the two principal streets plotted for business purposes. The next streets to Broadway, paralleling it on east and west, are also reserved for business. Excepting Broadway and Fifth avenue all streets are 60 feet in width. Along all streets but the four business streets a building line of 20, 25, or 35 feet is established. This has been observed in the building of company houses, and each contract for the sale of a lot stipulates its observance in any building to be erected. An alley, in most cases 30 feet wide, runs the long way in the center of each block. The lots in the residence districts are mostly 30 by 150 feet. A few are only 25 feet wide and the length of some is only 125 feet. It will be noted that this allows for a good-sized back yard, but that the space between houses is not likely to be considerable. The proportion of a lot which may be covered by buildings, and the number of buildings to be permitted on a lot, do not seem as yet to be worked out in the building code of the town. Lots on the business streets are uniformly 125 feet in length. On Broadway and Fifth avenue they are 25 feet wide; on the two other business streets paralleling Broadway they are 30 feet wide. The typical block is 600 feet in length, permitting 40 lots of 30 feet width in the residence district. Street paving is granitoid on two miles of Broadway, and concrete, brick or mac-

¹The Sum of A Thousand Short Cuts—*System*, January 1909.



MAYOR KNOTT'S FIRST RESIDENCE.

adam on the fifteen miles of other streets already paved.

In the provision of the fundamental utilities to serve the necessities of the population, efficiency and amplitude are manifest in marked degree. With no permanent population yet on the ground and even before the streets were laid, the company immediately constructed sewer and water systems large enough for years to come. Of primary importance is the fact that all sewers and water mains are laid in the alleys, so that in the future there will be little need of tearing up the streets to make repairs or new installation.

The cost of sewers and paving has been distributed over the lots in the subdivision, being included in the price of each so that there is no assessment for these improvements. The sewer system can readily be extended to the subdivision not owned and developed by the company, assessment on the lots defraying the cost.

Water supply is furnished by the Gary Heat, Light and Water Company, an-

other subsidiary company of the steel corporation. It furnishes also, as its name implies, electric lighting and gas. There is a provision that ownership of these public utility plants may be acquired hereafter by the city. For water supply a three mile tunnel six feet in diameter extends a mile and a half into Lake Michigan. Its shore end is at the pumping station—this and a 500,000 gallon water tower in the park site west of Broadway. Already twenty-five miles of mains have been laid, and the capacity of the system is 20,000,000 gallons a day—enough for a population of 200,000. To appreciate the advance in town efficiency, as contrasted with some other localities where the United States Steel Corporation acts as landlord, compare with this water system the pump in Pittsburgh's "Painters Row," the only source from which no less than 568 people can get water fit to drink.

That the "Painters Row" pump is not the only feature of older steel towns upon which Gary marks improvement is already apparent to readers of the



MAYOR KNOTT'S PRESENT RESIDENCE.

Pittsburgh Survey articles recently published in this magazine. Perhaps no part of Gary's development is so immediately pleasing as the houses. The Gary Land Company, as already stated, has erected 506 dwellings. Approximately 250 more have been built by individuals who have bought lots in the company subdivision. Instead of rows upon rows of exactly similar—and usually ugly—houses, which generally come to mind at the mention of “company houses,” there is in Gary an admirable diversity of architecture. Combined with this, however, is harmony in the general effect, due no doubt to the fact that the whole work was in the hands of but two architects. A glimpse of how well they succeeded may be observed in the pictures accompanying this article.

Roughly classified these 506 company houses include:

- 50 frame houses, 4 rooms, renting at \$12 to \$13 a month.
- 90 frame houses, 4, 5 and 6 rooms, renting at \$14 to \$20 a month.
- 100 frame houses, 6 rooms, renting at \$16.50 to \$19.50 a month.

266 brick, cement and timber houses, 5 to 10 rooms, renting at \$23 to \$42 a month.

The cheapest houses are in the northeast corner of the company subdivision, locally called “Hunkyville,” where the lowest paid immigrant labor lives. The ninety next better houses are in the northwest corner, known as “Kirkville,” and are occupied almost entirely by workmen in the repair shops of the Chicago, Lake Shore and Eastern Railroad nearby. The rest of the houses are scattered over the central portions of the subdivision, those to the west of Broadway being somewhat better than those to the east. The quality of dwellings east of Broadway, however, is likely to be improved, now that the American Locomotive Company's works are to be built just east of the subdivision. The nearest available location for the dwellings of officials and the more highly paid clerical force will be the eastern portion of the subdivision. It is likely that the fifty “double drygoods boxes,” as Hunkyville houses are called, will be moved elsewhere.



SOD SHANTY—AN EARLY HABITATION.

With evident intention of avoiding the mistakes of Pullman, the company announces its desire to sell lots as rapidly as possible, so that any paternalism it has exercised may speedily come to an end. The price of the company's more advantageously located lots is still kept below that of lots outside its subdivision. Great care, however, is used to see that they do not fall into the hands of speculators who will hold them vacant. It is the desire to make them available for employees of the company.

The agreement concerning the sale of a lot stipulates that the plans must be approved by the agent of the company, that the building must be completed within eighteen months, that it must be built back of the prescribed building line, and that no liquor is ever to be sold on the premises. Exception to the latter provision was made in the case of a few places on Broadway. A number of saloons had sprung up south of the company subdivision, where there are no restrictions regarding the sale of lots. All saloons in the whole town of Gary, however, were closed on April 1, 1909, when

the region became "dry territory."

Gary's people—who are they? The study of Pittsburgh's population and whence it came was compared to an analysis of a river's currents. At Gary such a study would be like cross-sectioning a water spout. Perhaps the writer's own experience was characteristic. The first word spoken to him in Gary after he alighted from the train, a complete stranger on his first visit, was by a foreigner inquiring his way. At a café on Broadway which looked as if it had been in good running order at least a year, the waiter, in response to a question, said that the place had been open five days, and that he himself had arrived the night before last. An "oldest inhabitant"—about three years in the town—describing the influx of people said they seemed to sprout suddenly up out of the ground. This was when the main part of the 6,000 men employed in construction were coming in.

The growth of Gary's population may be divided into two main stages, corresponding to the development of the place. First came the construction crowd.

While a large number of these are still on the ground, the transition to the permanent working force of the steel plant is now taking place, the mill having recently started operation. This change, however, will not be sudden, for much construction work yet remains to be done. From the beginning there has, of course, been a steady growth in the element identified with the development of such town activities as stores, laundries, newspapers, etc., and in the number of lawyers, physicians and members of the other professions.

The construction force was brought in principally by contractors. With its make-up and living conditions the steel company had not much to do. A large proportion was made up of the lowest paid immigrant labor. While the construction period has lasted many months, it of course has not been long enough to warrant the provision of any but the most temporary sort of shelter. Allusion has already been made to the shacks and tents. Types are shown in the accompanying illustrations. The crowding in these has been most dense, a shack of three rooms housing sometimes as many as twenty or more people, an indication of whose primitive way of living is seen in the picture of a pig being roasted whole over a bon-fire at the front door. The story of the wholesale vaccination during an epidemic has been told elsewhere, but it will bear repeating here. In the early days smallpox broke out in a crowd of Negroes who were promptly quarantined, a "pest house in the bush" being hastily established. Immediately a force of physicians was hurried into the town to vaccinate the whole population. The process was a strange one to the "Hunkies" and explanation was too laborious and slow. They fled in terror whenever approached, so that a common sight on Broadway, and one which—to hear it told—must have provided an amazing deal of sport for the more intelligent inhabitants, was a "Hunky" tearing down the street pursued by a policeman and a doctor—satchel in hand. The victim captured, he was at once pinned to the curbstone or pavement, his leg or arm bared, and despite sputter-

ing protestations the job was triumphantly performed.

The present "Hunkyville" is filled with laborers of about the same grade as those who live in the shacks. Even "Hunkyville's" four rows of "double dry goods boxes"—four rooms and a bath tub to each house—form a height of civilization, the complexities of which are not entirely comprehensible to the dwellers. The bath tubs are used in a still greater variety of ways than the proverbial New York East Side tenement bath tub, and the sanitary conveniences are even more misunderstood. A common impression seems to be that something must be out of order if the water ever stops running from a faucet or in any appliance. Education was reduced at once to terms of economics. It was found that the water bill in a single "Hunkyville" dwelling sometimes amounted to as much as \$11.50 a month. That of the largest house in Gary, occupied by the mill superintendent, rarely reached \$2. Inspectors from the water office had little difficulty in teaching the man on wages of \$1.60 a day how to use water without running up a bill of \$11.50 a month. The crowding in these cheapest grade houses is almost as bad as that in some of the shacks. Thirty-eight of the four room dwellings—142 rooms—recently contained 428 people.

The transition from construction gangs to permanently employed steel workers means that from now on the proportion of low-grade foreign labor will diminish. The great inadequacy of present housing for the lowest paid labor may be thus in some measure accounted for. It must be said, however, that housing facilities of all sorts are not sufficient; a situation due, it is probable, not so much to the failure of anyone to meet responsibilities, as to the plain fact that it takes time to build houses.

To show the national representation in the present polyglot population needs scarcely more description than the figures of a rough census taken by the Gary Land Company, November 23, 1908 appearing on page 33.

Of these 10,223 people, between 5,000 and 7,000, were men of voting age. The



PART OF
"SHACKTOWN."



"EUCLID AVENUE."
Shacks still inhabited.



GARY'S FIRST
LAUNDRY.

CENSUS OF GARY, NOVEMBER, 1908.

Slavonians	300
Hungarians	325
Croatians	950
Bohemians	125
Servians	1,000
Montenegrans	375
Turks	40
Macedonians	100
Armenians	25
Greeks	40
Russians	150
Poles (German and Russian) ..	1,100
Germans	150
Belgians	15
French	6
Norwegians	75
Swedes	125
Danes	15
Finns	20
Italians	350
Japanese	10
Negroes	250
Welsh	50
Jews	150
Irish, Scotch, English, Canadian and Americans	4,500
	<hr/>
	10,246

extent to which the population varies from that of the average family community may be seen in the fact that ordinary computation from a knowledge of the number of men over twenty-one years of age, would give Gary approximately 30,000 population. This fact is also significant in connection with predictions on the probable growth of Gary's total population, which should increasingly tend to reach the normal proportion to men of voting age.

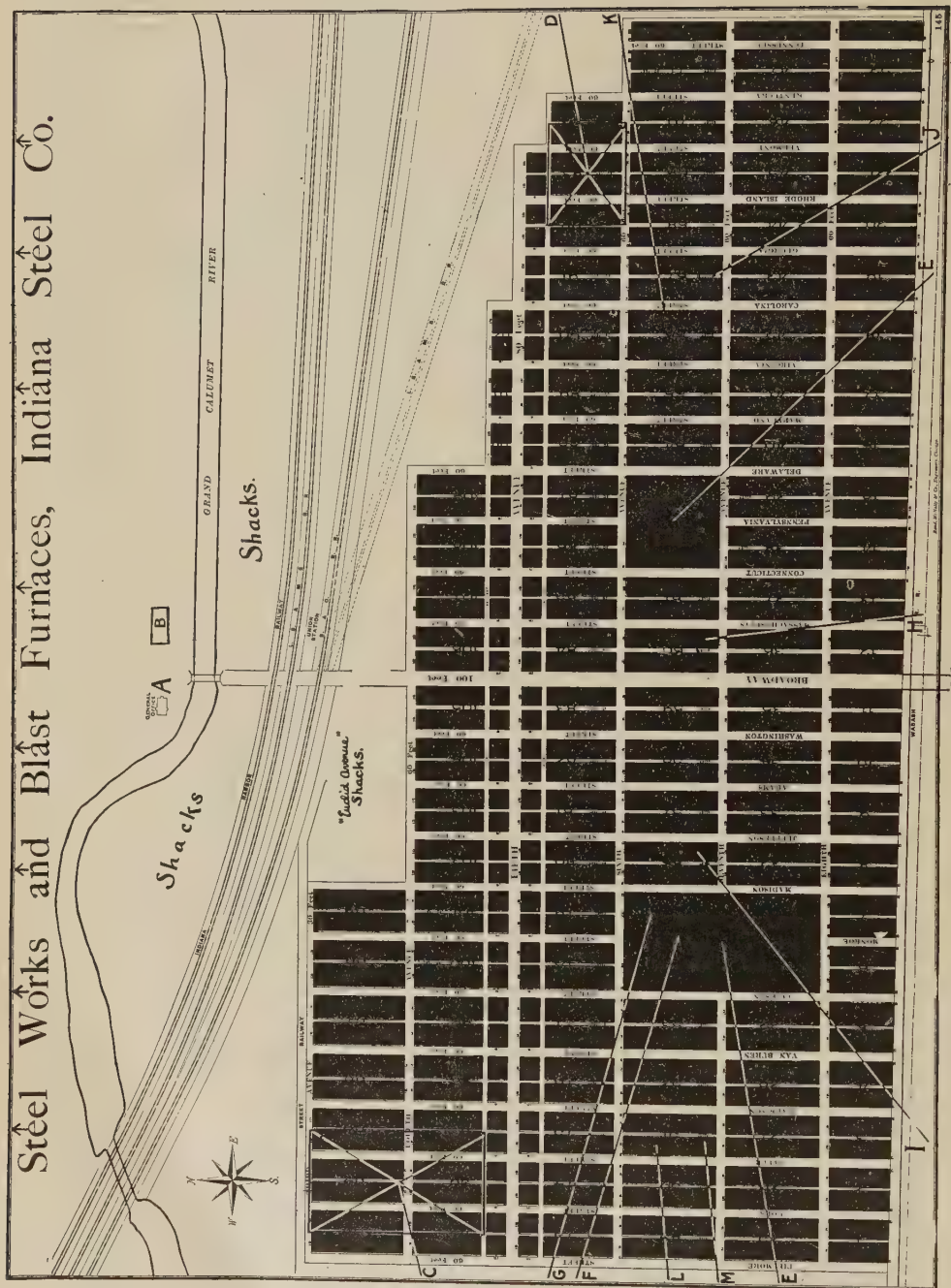
Some misunderstanding regarding Gary's working people has arisen because of a like misunderstanding of the Gary plant's relation to the rest of the steel industry. While some of the more skilled men now at Gary have come from the Pittsburgh steel district, there is no reason to suppose that, if a great development of the new plant at the tip of Lake Michigan comes, it will involve the removal of any large number of workers from the plants in western Pennsylvania. "The larger design (of Gary) is in the lap of the coming decade"—we quote again from the engineering article previously referred to. "Given a demand

to justify such expansion—here is no rivalry with existing mills, but provision for the future just dawning. Gary will surpass Pittsburgh as a producer of steel, for the sufficient reason that open hearth steel, the favored material for rails, bridges, and structural shapes, can be converted and rolled at Gary cheaper than anywhere else in the world." On the basis of this statement it will be seen that Gary's working force, as well as Gary's product, means no reduction in existing plants, but an addition to the totals in the steel industry to meet the larger demands of the future.

Gary's vote in April, 1907, was 29; in November, 1908, eighteen months later, it was over 2,000. At the start there were barely enough voters to organize town government. The present Gary is a place of well informed and alert citizenship. Already the various functions of the modern city are being well organized. A police force came early. The conditions in the pioneer days of this place, just twenty-six miles from Chicago's downtown, were startlingly like those of the western frontier. The region had its traditions; it was where the police of Chicago a few years ago had pitched battles with the notorious "car barn bandits," who were eventually captured and hung. The earliest construction crews had their quota of ruffians. And the health emergencies of a mushroom community needed strong authority. Curiously enough most of the other municipal functions were provided before the fire department, which, at its establishment a few months ago, was urgently needed to bring down insurance rates. A fine building is just about to be constructed for these two branches of the city service. For some time to come it will also house the other executive offices of the local government.

Schools were early provided. The first ones were portable frame affairs, which met the need during the construction of the fine two-story and basement Jefferson School which the company erected at a cost of \$80,000. The Emerson School, designed by the architect of the famous St. Louis schools, is nearing completion at a cost of over \$200,000. A parochial school costing

Steel Works and Blast Furnaces, Indiana Steel Co.



GARY.

A. General Office, Indiana Steel Company. B. Site of hospital to be erected by Indiana Steel Company. C. "Kirkville." Ninety houses inhabited by employees of Kirk yards. Repair shops of Chicago, Lake Shore and Eastern Railroad, which adjoin north and northwest. D. "Hunkerville." Fifty cheapest houses built by company. E. Parks plotted. F. Water tower. G. Water pumping station. H. Municipal building (site) police and fire department. I. Jefferson public school. J. Emerson public school to open September 1. K. Mercy Hospital, temporary location. L. Mercy Hospital, site for permanent building. M. Parochial school.

about \$50,000 is soon to open its doors. The pupils in the public schools numbered over 1,000 at the close of school last spring. Thirty-six teachers are now employed. The new Emerson School will have a playground of about an acre and a half. The Jefferson School, while it has no playground adjoining, is but half a block from a park space.

Working in close co-operation with the schools is the recently organized public library—perhaps, in proposed scope, the most progressive civic institution in Gary. An interesting commentary on the town's growth, and a circumstance which doubtless has something to do with the fine co-operation between the library and the schools, is the fact that the library could not be organized under the general library law of the state, which requires that the five library trustees must have been residents of the place for five years. There being none with this qualification, the library was organized under another statute allowing it to be conducted by the school authorities, who on this account are authorized to levy a larger tax. Housed at present in a store and basement, the library maintains an attractive reading room, and in the basement evening classes for immigrants studying English, with an instructor furnished by the schools.

Branch libraries are to be in every school, and a progressive service in this connection will be rendered in teaching the children and giving them experience in the use of library facilities. For certain periods each week the children of each grade will be placed in charge of the branch librarian. The importance of this as a stimulus to continued use of books after school days are past, is apparent.

Schools, and library too, are to be used as social centers. The former have gymnasiums, natatoriums and manual training, and each day pupil keeps his books in lockers so that the classrooms may be freely used at night. The librarian is now planning what the permanent library building shall provide. In addition to the ordinary library facilities he proposes baths, bowling, billiards and pool, and a gymnasium available also for dances. If these

features are included, Gary's library will be the first in this country maintained solely by public funds, to provide such social and club facilities. The few which now make such provision are located in industrial towns where, in addition to public funds, a scheme of membership fee is in force or the industrial concern gives an endowment or meets the deficit.

A small hospital is at present provided by the Sisters of Mercy. This year, however, the steel company will erect a large one costing \$200,000 for the use of its employees. It will be located on the east side of Broadway, near the entrance of the mill. Two parks have been plotted, as will be seen on the map, one four blocks west, and the other two blocks east of Broadway. The former is four blocks in area and the latter two. Neither is as yet improved as a park. Upon the larger one the water tower and pumping station have been erected. The tower is at present built entirely of steel, but the design has been made to sheath it attractively with brick and stone.

Advantage has in no way been taken of the nearby water fronts. The Grand Calumet river whose channel was moved south to make more room for the steel plant is, as it flows between steel plant and town, a sluggish ditch with ugly banks. It is possible that some parts of the Little Calumet River, which parallels the Grand Calumet three miles south, might be utilized for parkway purposes.

Most serious of all, however, is the complete preoccupation of the Lake Michigan water front for steel plant and manufacturing purposes. As has already been pointed out, the holdings of the steel company make a strip averaging two miles in width and extending, with the land soon to be bought, ten consecutive miles along Lake Michigan's shining sandy shore. The fact which first catches the eye of the city planner who looks at the matter from the community point of view, is that direct access of the town to the lake is completely shut off by the steel plant. The extent of the tract reserved for industrial expansion, moreover, is so great that even a roundabout access is excessively long and difficult.

The prime economic importance of ex-

tensive harbor and dockage facilities for the steel plant and all the subsidiary manufacturing interests is well recognized. But the most serious and immediate consideration ought to be given to the question, whether some portions of the lake shore, somewhere along the ten miles, cannot now be reserved for park purposes. The region is one of great geological and botanical interest and its wild and distinctive scenery has for years attracted groups of nature lovers from Chicago. From Chicago's standpoint, therefore, it is desirable that regions of natural beauty near her boundaries be preserved for the use of the great and growing metropolitan population. But above all, from the standpoint of the people living in Gary, still more especially for the numbers who are yet to come, this question is urgent. It has been said regarding this very situation that the steel companies "are not in the summer resort business." And from authoritative sources has come the information that the matter of the people's access to the lake was considered, but that it was not thought "safe for future industrial expansion" to set aside specific portions of shore for park purposes. The intention of these paragraphs is not to argue the point—the writer's knowledge of the factors in the question is slight indeed—but merely to direct some attention to this problem confronting Gary, the community. This is the sort of problem, moreover, to which frequently people do not become aroused until too late. Considerable agitation of it is already reported to have arisen among Gary's citizens. May it be co-operatively taken up

by all interests and solved satisfactorily and speedily.

The citizenship of Gary has been described as well-informed and alert. It has already shown a disposition to watch carefully its public interests. Rightly or wrongly it has on occasion taken issue with the controlling industry of the place. Yet it is a tribute to American fair-mindedness that there remains on both sides—citizens and company—a good spirit of working together. It is hard to find a soul who fails to "point with pride" at the industrial genius which has found expression in the place, and every business man believes enthusiastically in the city's future.

This sketch touches only the more obvious points to be observed on the surface. It does not even cover all these. For instance, the progress being made by religious organizations could be interestingly detailed. And one of the many community problems scarcely mentioned is the need for a farsighted look toward an eventual grouping of public buildings. On the industrial side, it would be of the greatest interest to study wages in relation to the standard of living. Grant that the latter is exceptionally high—housing and fundamental utilities bear this out—what are the costs in relation to wages?

Gary, by reason of its industrial significance and the marvelous growth of its community life, is a marked place for the student of social, civic and industrial advance. If these observations and impressions might suggest a more careful survey, they would more than fulfill their purpose.



GARY STEEL PLANT AND HARBOR.
Channel 250 feet wide dug half a mile inland.

RELIEF WORK FOR THE MESSINA REFUGEES IN SYRACUSE¹

KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS



TAILORS ON THE ROOF OF THE ARCHBISHOP'S PALACE.

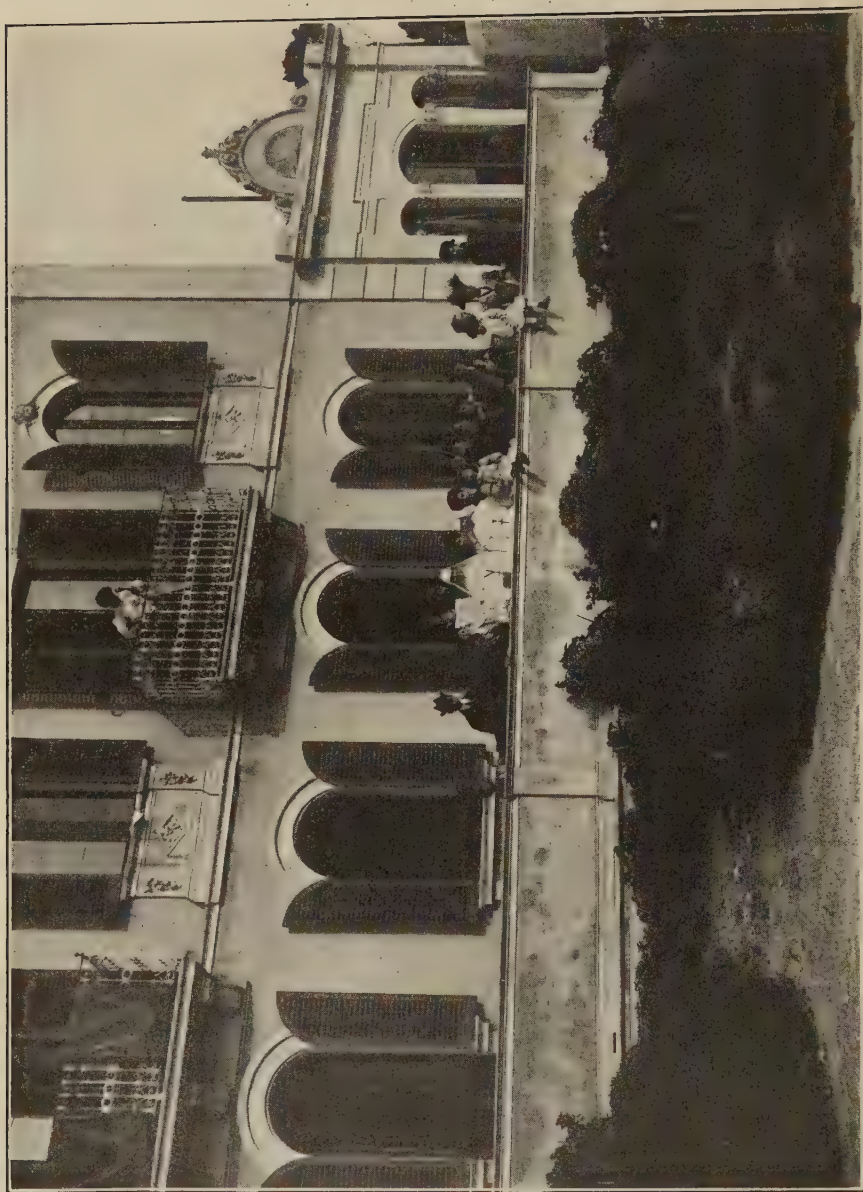
The cathedral of Syracuse, with which the palace is connected, is in the background. The man standing in the middle, at the back, lost his wife and child, father and mother at Messina. He is to be sent back to New York, where his old employer says he can have work.

Syracuse, Sicily, is to-day a city of about 39,000 souls, packed on the small island of Ortygia, down to the water's edge. It contains no vacant houses and few vacant rooms. On the mainland is the poorer suburb of Santa Lucia. The city has no residents of large wealth and many who are very poor. Until December 28, 1908, probably not a person in the city, from the prefect and the mayor down, had ever had the smallest experience in organized relief work. The customs of the town are almost oriental, particularly among the women of the better class, who do not go out unattended, never transact business for themselves and are entirely unused to the co-opera-

tive work which you will find, at least connected with the church organizations in the smallest towns in the United States.

Into this town there came between the night of December 29 and the first days of January 4,000 refugees, 1,000 of whom required hospital treatment—hundreds of them horribly mangled and requiring immediate operations—all of them naked and hungry and cold. Most of them were brought by the English warship *Sutlej*, which made several trips backward and forward from Messina, and by the Russian warship *Caesarevitch*. The newspapers have told of the heroism and devotion of the officers and men of these ships but their conduct can be appreciated only by those who saw. The last shipload was composed largely of persons

¹Begun in Syracuse in the last days of February and finished in Rome March 5, 1909. Dr. Davis is superintendent of the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford, New York.



AMERICAN RED CROSS PENSION (CAPPUCCINI.)



PERSONS PROMINENT IN RELIEF WORK IN SYRACUSE.

(1) Commandatore G. Toscano, mayor of Syracuse. (2) Madame Bonnano, active in the hospital work. (3) Marchesa Dora di Rudini, English lady married to the son of the late prime minister of Italy. She is president of the sub-committee of the province of Syracuse for the "Queen Elena Committee" for the care of the orphans of the earthquake. She is also active in the small hospitals of the province. (4) The prefect of the province. (5) Baronessa del Bosca, daughter of the Italian Minister to England.

who had been under the ruins five days. Death was merciful to most of these.

The first thing was to attend to the wounded. As fast as they could be landed they were taken to the City Hospital, an old, old building once a convent. Here in ordinary times the good sisters who do the nursing may care for a dozen persons in a year. Two hundred persons filled it to overflowing. Next the archbishop sent his theological students away and turned his palace into a hospital for about two hundred more. A chapel was used for the supply room, the altar itself serving as a table. Some of the worst cases went into a small private hospital; the military hospital overflowed into the soldiers' dormitories. An infant asylum was next pressed into service and finally the large barn-like rooms of the "old barracks" were filled. There were no trained nurses in Syracuse—yes, there was one; an English girl, herself a Messina refugee, who was brought on the

first ship. She was uninjured and for two days and two nights she helped the surgeons with the worst cases. Physicians came in from the little towns of the neighborhood and gentlemen of the town took off their coats, put on aprons and acted as their assistants. Every one of them worked day and night and did his very best with a devotion that could not be surpassed. But most of what we at home have learned to think of as essential was lacking, and in the first days I said to myself many times: "If any of these patients live I shall always believe septic surgery a fad!"

It was three weeks before the German Red Cross Relief Expedition from Berlin and the Italian Red Cross from Brescia reached us. They took charge of the Barracks Hospital, the biggest and the worst, and in two days had worked a complete transformation. The Germans came with carloads of supplies, everything necessary for a modern hospital even to

beds, bedding, clothing, food, etc. They brought with them twelve trained nurses, an interpreter and various attendants. Their work has been splendid. They have done many wonderful operations and now all the worst cases are taken to them. If they could only have got here sooner many lives would have been saved and much suffering prevented.

The uninjured or slightly injured refugees had to be cared for of course at the same time. The public schools were turned into dormitories, convents received women and children, the hotels and inns of the town were filled with people of the better class and many individuals were cared for in private houses. In a few days, as soon as arrangements could be made, squads of these were drafted off to the nearby small towns of Avola, Noto, Ragusa and Modica; 850 were placed on a large ship chartered by the government and anchored in the harbor.

After the first few days I decided that I could be of more service outside the hospitals than inside. Supplies of every sort were needed, which it was impossible to buy ready made in the city. Much second-hand clothing was donated by the city and in a week's time a great deal came from Malta, also second-hand, but among these there was very little under-clothing and not enough of anything.

The mayor, when approached on the subject, approved of our plan of employing the idle Messinese women and gave us rooms in the City Hall. In spite of predictions that they were too demoralized by the shock to work we went ahead and after the first few days could get all the women we could handle. W. Bayard Cutting, Jr., vice consul at Milan, and one of the relief committee on the Bayern, reached Syracuse January 12. He approved of our plans and as a result of his visit funds of the American Red Cross were sent to Syracuse to be used for our purposes. All through the month of January the city supplied the material and we paid the wages, employing 150 women, with an average of seventy a day.

An English lady started a room at Hotel Villa Coliti where others of the

refugee women quartered at Santa Lucia were put to work. We paid wages of a *lira* and a half (thirty cents) a day, and furnished a midday lunch to those so situated that they could not bring one with them.

In the latter part of January a large supply of ready-made garments came from Germany for distribution by the German Red Cross. These together with the second-hand clothing already donated and the products of our workrooms, pretty well dressed the refugees in Syracuse. The mayor very properly decided that he could spend no more money for material.

We were lamenting the closing of the workrooms and the consequent idleness of the women, when Edmund Billings of the Massachusetts Italian Relief Committee arrived with news of the extreme destitution in the little villages in the neighborhood of Messina, and of the splendid work being done in them by two young Americans, Mr. Bowdoin and Mr. Wood. We telegraphed them as to the amounts of clothing needed and received the reply "3,700 complete outfits."

So we set to work again—in fact the rooms were not closed—this time with Massachusetts money for material and Red Cross money for wages, and the work will continue as long as the money lasts or to about the middle of March.

Syracuse, like most Sicilian towns, has a considerable unemployed class who spend much of their time on the public squares and street corners with nothing to do but comment on the passersby. To these were now added the refugees. So far as the public relief for food and shelter were concerned, in the earlier days, the refugees were divided into four groups: First, the 850 who lived on the ship were lodged and fed directly by the government at Rome, the ship being chartered for that purpose. Second, those who lodged in the school buildings and were fed in common at the expense of the city. Third, the people of the higher classes who stayed at the hotels and inns and those whose bills were paid by the city. Fourth, a smaller number for whom rooms could be found in city or suburbs. To these was allowed a franc a day for

each member of the family except babies in arms, and they paid their own rent and supplied their own food. For furniture for the most part they had only straw mattresses on the floor and an army blanket apiece. They had no housekeeping utensils of any sort and had to buy their food ready cooked. Much complaint was made by this class of the extortionate price charged for rent and for food. The money for the support of the last three classes came from funds sent by the authorities at Rome.

In the early days of February those

be had for nothing. It was pointed out that those who would work might receive enough to a little more than pay for what the others were getting for nothing, and that thus the lazy could be sifted out. Some thought that only the government could deal with so large a proposition. This was true, but it did not make it less true that to have any occupied was a gain. Finally it was arranged that the city engineer should plan for street improvements badly needed on the roads in the old city. A man from the department was put in charge. Tools had not only



END OF WARD IN GERMAN RED CROSS HOSPITAL IN THE "OLD BARRACKS."

living in the hotels were notified that not over three francs a day could be allowed to each person and they must make such arrangements as they could. In the latter part of February the German barracks were ready and the people who had lodged in the schools were moved into them. The city authorities undertook to feed these from a common kitchen. None of these people had any employment.

It was early suggested to the mayor that it would be well to give the men something to do to keep them out of mischief. At first this was thought impossible. It was said that they would not work, so long as food and shelter could

to be bought but made to order, and it was not until January 25 that the work was really under way. Road making in Southern Sicily is not a complicated operation. Stone being abundant can be had for the picking up. There are no steam stone crushers, and it is all broken by hand. No steam rollers are used. The only tools are willow baskets to carry the stones, wheel-barrows of a dwarf variety, shovels and picks, and hammers for breaking the stone.

We paid two francs a day to the men, one franc and a half to the boys who picked up the stone and carried it to the carts, and three francs a day to the foremen. The city paid the rent for the



THE GERMAN RED CROSS RELIEF CORPS AT SYRACUSE.

(1) Dr. Francis Colmers, chief of the expedition. (2) Head nurse. (3) Baron Bonnano, German vice-consul at Syracuse. (4) Dr. Veit, who took charge of the patients at pension.

donkeys and carts which were from Syracuse. More men applied than we could employ, simply because it was impossible to organize the work properly and get honest supervision. We began with thirty-three men; the last week in February seventy were working; the first of March an additional squad of eighteen began. Over 150 men were employed, for individuals were constantly leaving to go back to Messina. The rate of wages was the current rate for this grade of labor in Sicily.

On leaving Syracuse I turned over to the mayor 5,000 francs, the balance left in the fund given me for this purpose. This amount is to be expended entirely on the roads as wages and it will keep the men busy throughout March.

One of the great needs was for shoes. Not enough were sent in with the relief supplies and few ready made could be had in the city. As a rule people in the smaller towns of Sicily have their shoes made to order and the small establishments employing from one to half a



REFUGEE WOMEN SEWING IN COUNCIL ROOM OF THE MUNICIPIO.

In the background with the striped waist is Mrs. Claire Sisco, of Sisco, Florida, who was the "other half" of the American population of Syracuse.

dozen shoemakers are numerous. There were shoemakers among the refugees, so we brought enough tools to employ twelve men and two women. The archbishop gave the use of a basement in his palace for a shoe shop. We found a Messinese foreman and bought material which he cut. He first went to the archbishop's hospital and took the measures of the patients who were going out first, and when they were ready to go shoes which fitted them were also ready. Material cost five francs a pair. We paid for the labor three francs for men's and two and one-half francs for women's shoes. The shoes were excellent in quality and well made—much better than ready made at the same price.

A tailor shop was started in an old chapel in the archbishop's palace, on a similar plan except that there we paid day's wages. The men of better class, professional men, merchants and the like, were measured while still in the hospitals and decent black suits provided for them. These two shops will continue as long as the money lasts.

Among the refugees brought to Syracuse were 127 orphans and nearly as many more dependent half orphans. A sub-committee of the "National Association for the Care of the Earthquake Orphans Under the Patronage of Queen Elena," was organized for the province of Syracuse with the Marchesa di Rudini as president. It was necessary to provide a permanent home for these children where suitable education and industrial training could be given. There was on the outskirts of Syracuse a large and substantial building, quite new, which had been erected for the care of abandoned boys of the province of Syracuse. There were only twenty-five of these and accommodations on the first floor for fifty more. The second floor, if finished, would house seventy-five in large, light and airy rooms. But there was no money. At this juncture Mr. Billings most fortunately arrived (his coming saved several situations). He offered to give the money from the Massachusetts funds for the necessary labor, provided Messinese labor be employed and ma-

terial be furnished through local effort. The result was that the archbishop got the money for materials from the pope's fund and work began immediately. At the time of writing between forty and fifty Messinese masons, carpenters and painters are at work and it is expected that the building will be ready for occupancy by April 1. The German Red Cross has promised to leave one hundred beds and proper bedding.

The German Red Cross employed temporarily some Messinese labor in erecting the tents. A few individuals secured employment of various kinds in Syracuse but to the best of my knowledge and belief the work described above is all that has been done in Syracuse toward keeping the refugees busy.

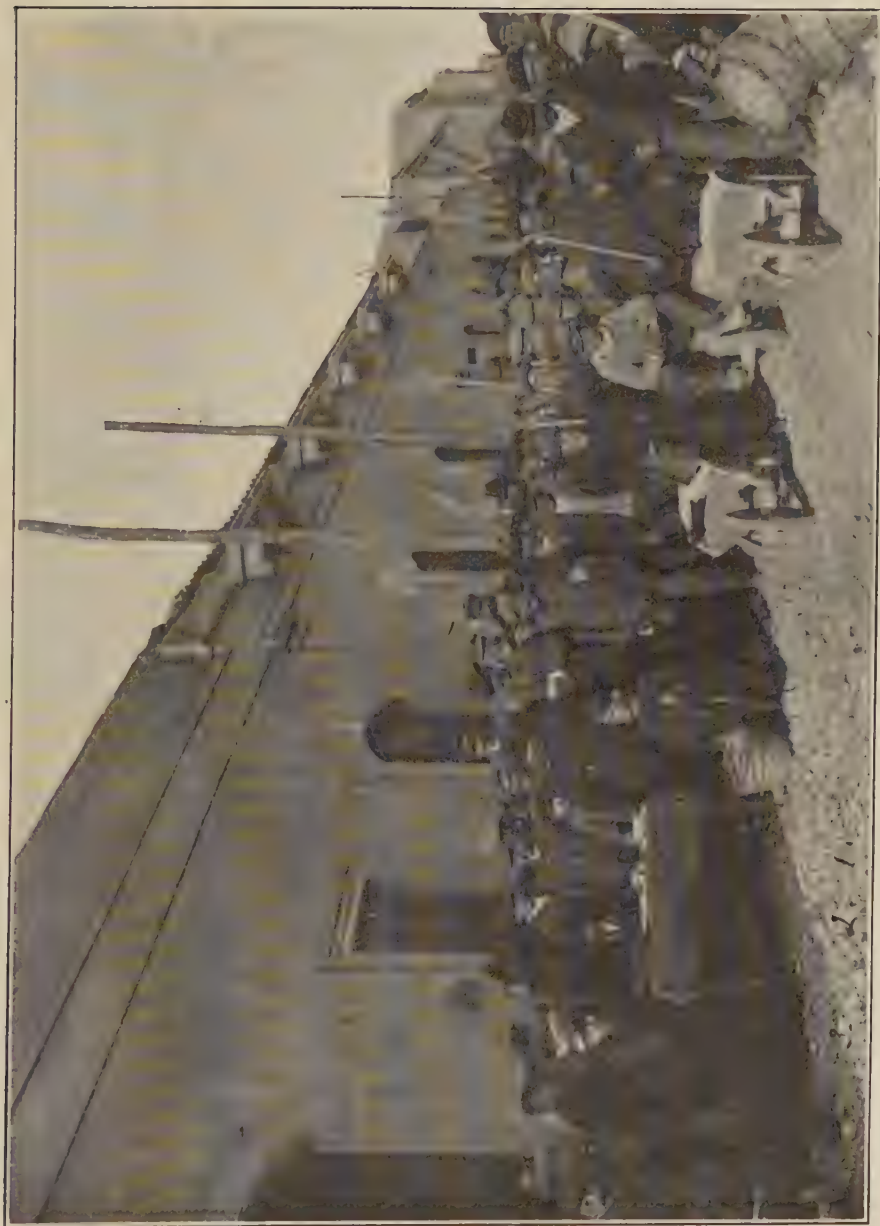
The need of a home for convalescents was very early apparent. At the best the hospitals were horrible places and to a person of any delicacy the sights and sounds could hardly help retard recovery. Such a home was made possible through the interest of Mr. Cutting, who secured Red Cross funds for the purpose. The *Pension Cappuccini*, a dependence of the

Hotel Villa Politi, was empty, for tourists shunned Sicily after the disaster and hotelkeepers in general could be classed as sufferers from the earthquake. We rented the entire *pension*. With a little crowding we could accommodate forty-five. We averaged forty-three and took care of fifty different people. We called the house the American Red Cross Pension and a fine sign, painted in Italian by the head waiter and placed over the front door, announced to the world that America, too, was not idle.

At the request of the surgeons we took a number of cases still bed-ridden who for various reasons were better out of the hospitals. This necessitated a physician. Dr. Veit of the German Red Cross kindly moved out to *Villa Politi* and took charge. A German trained nurse came out daily at first for the worst dressings and two of the "blue sisters" from Malta were secured to take charge of the most serious cases. All our patients were absolutely destitute. When they came to us they had nothing but the odds and ends they wore, not even a comb or a tooth brush among them. An informal com-



SHOE MAKING UNDER DIFFICULTIES.



A GROUP OF MEN WHO WORKED AT ROAD-MAKING COMING TO BE PAID OFF ON SATURDAY NIGHT.

The tools had to be made to order. (1) The foreman of the work. (2) The young English student at Messina who lost his father, mother and brothers in the earthquake. He acted as Miss Davis's secretary during her stay in Syracuse. (3) Miss Davis.

mittee consisting of Mrs. Kockel, the wife of the hotel proprietor; myself as chairman, a Swiss, and two English ladies staying at the hotel managed the house. One of the English ladies, Mrs. Murson, started a sewing room at the hotel where she employed eighteen refugees. First she "sewed up" the guests at the *pension*. Afterward the clothing made in her room went to the villages near Messina. Later when most of our women patients were up and about, Mrs. Royle, the other English lady, succeeded in starting a sewing circle among them where for three weeks they sewed from 9 A. M. to 4 P. M. for the less fortunate folk in the hill villages. This we really considered our greatest triumph.

The *pension* was open from January 19 to March 1. Then arrangements were made to care for all our guests in various ways elsewhere. None was turned out into the cold world. For five families rooms were rented, the rent paid in advance for one month and in two cases for two months; the absolutely necessary furniture was provided, and the mayor undertook to furnish a small allowance for food until the men could find work. Other individuals went to relatives; one English woman by birth who lost both her feet goes soon to a brother in England. One young man, an electrician, badly injured in his back, received a sum of money to pay his board until he is strong enough to travel to Milan, the headquarters of his firm, and so on. If the Americans whose money made it possible, had seen the gratitude of these people for the comfortable home in which to recover health and strength, they would have rejoiced to have had the opportunity of giving.

Still another use made of American money in Syracuse was the direct gifts to people discharged from the hospitals but still unable to work and who required more comforts than could be given them in the barracks. Among these were the cases which most wrung one's heart. The Massachusetts Committee contributed 10,000 francs for this purpose. The French Red Cross and the Italian Red Cross each sent 5,000 francs to be used in the same way. The Marchesa di Ru-

dini, to whom the latter amounts were sent, and I, in consultation with the heads of the various hospitals went over the lists of patients, many of whom we knew personally, and apportioned the money among them according to what seemed to be their respective needs. In this way there was no overlapping and no overlooking. In each case the money was not given until the patient actually left the hospital, as we did not want it frittered away on superfluous trifles. Then the patient presented an order signed by the surgeon-in-chief of the hospital and countersigned by the mayor. The amounts given varied from 25 to 250 francs, the latter a large sum in Sicily.

In addition to American money spent as outlined above certain sums were given directly to the archbishop to be used in his hospital, to the president of the Congregation of Charities for the Municipal Hospital which is gradually assuming the care of the cases left by the closing of the other temporary hospitals; to the mayor for use in special cases and to the Marchesa di Rudini for use in the little hospitals of the nearby towns. In all a little over \$15,000 from the American Red Cross, the Massachusetts Relief Committee and the American Relief Committee at Rome was spent in Syracuse. In addition to this food, supplies from the American Relief ship Celtic were given to the mayor.

Mrs. Sisco, the "other half of the American population" in Syracuse goes on with the workrooms for the women, for the tailors and for the shoemakers, until the money is exhausted, which will be not later than March 15. The mayor finishes the work on the roads and Commandatore Vinci, president of the Board of Managers of the Syracuse Home for Abandoned Boys, takes charge of the completion of the orphan asylum. Marchesa di Rudini will give out the money left which is designed for the patients coming out of the hospitals. She cannot remain many days longer.

The German Red Cross was to leave yesterday after transferring what patients it had left to the municipal hospital.

Mr. Kockel, the proprietor of Hotel Villa Polita, undertook to attend to the

transfer and settling of our guests at the *pension* in their new quarters. A sum of money was put into his hands to be used for them in any emergencies which might arise.

Syracuse has been fortunate in these days in having for mayor an honest gentleman who worked night and day with all his powers and who, however he was beset, was unfailingly kind and courteous; in having an archbishop, able and broad-minded, who gave up his palace to the relief work without a thought of his personal inconvenience; in having an able leader like the Marchesa di Rudini

to organize the work for the orphans; in being the field for the labors of the German Red Cross, and in having many private citizens who worked to the full extent of their ability. Among all these there has been a really considerable amount of co-operation. Now the funds for immediate relief are about exhausted, and we who have temporarily labored must go our ways with the feeling of having deserted a large and helpless family. We must leave behind to the citizens of Sicily and of Italy the biggest and the hardest problem—that of rehabilitation—and that is as yet untouched.



GERMAN RED CROSS BARRACKS.

Tents of canvas. Each tent (there were seventeen) accommodated twenty-five. One tent was the common kitchen and one the dining room. They were erected at the expense of the German Red Cross and when ready for use made over by formal presentation to the mayor of Syracuse.

EXPERIMENTS IN FELLOWSHIP

WORK WITH ITALIANS IN BOSTON

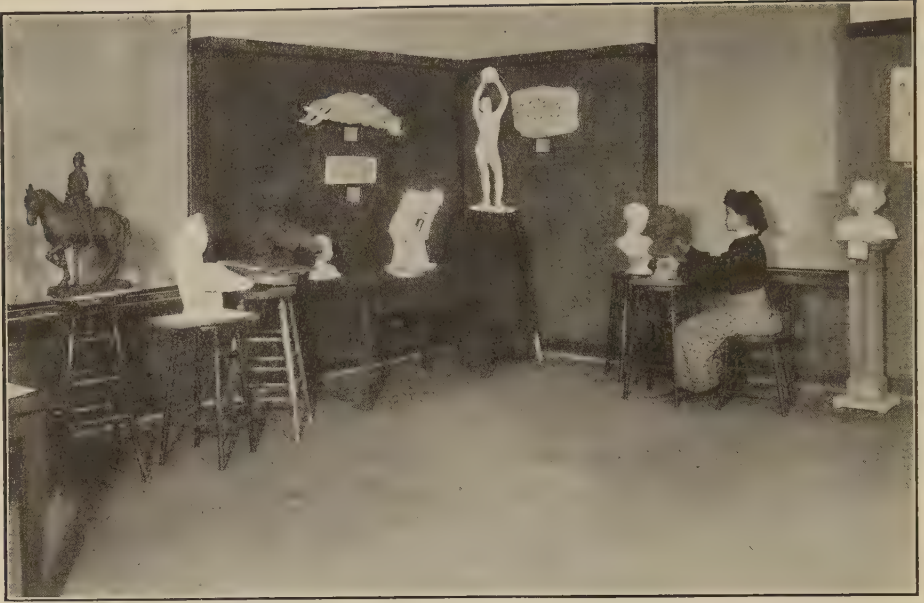
VIDA D. SCUDDER

Among the works of the sculptor George Barnard, there is a relief called *Brotherly Love*. Two nude figures, nobly modelled, press toward each other through an intervening mass of chaos represented by rough stone. Face can not look on face, hand does not yet touch groping hand,—but the finger-tips have touched.

The symbol recurs vividly to mind as one tries to achieve true contact with any great mass of persons of alien blood. The obstacles that divide us,—language,

race, class, religion,—seem indeed to be of the very substance of the rock. Yet we believe, and God grant that we may never lose the faith, that there is no barrier too dense to be penetrated by the feeling hand of love, instinct with intelligent purpose.

Probably no late arrivals on our shores will play a larger part in the America of the future than the Italians. Any one watching them must recognize their instinct for initiative, their keen curiosity about us, their eagerness to play an ac-



WORK OF ITALIANS IN THE NORTH BENNET STREET INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

tive part in our politics and in our social life. They are a people mentally alert, capable of enthusiasm for an abstract idea, and also bewilderingly swift in transition to cynicism and irony. For the present, they form in the cities large "self-contained" colonies, where old-world issues still seem of supreme importance, and where the only American ideas that really penetrate, apart from the valiant but inadequate work of the schools, are of the lower type. Journalism, art, music, religion, social life, are all furnished from within. But one feels that this condition is likely to be temporary. By what means and to what results the Italians are to enter our larger civic and national life, depends chiefly on us.

Our Boston Italian colony numbers sixty-five thousand souls. With this colony, Denison House, the College Settlement, has for some years known interesting relations through its Italian department. We have, to begin with, a sound organization of neighborhood work among the poorer people, mostly of the peasant class. They need all the connection with charitable agencies, all the help-

ful cheer of clubs, industrial classes, and social functions, which a settlement is so well qualified to give. Far more than we can offer would be necessary to meet the situation and to bring even the people of this small section adequately within reach of what welcome the city has to offer.

But suppose this done: the task of assimilation would in the deeper sense hardly have been approached. For we might not have come in contact at all with the real psychological forces that are swaying the Latin peoples among us. How many Americans do come in contact with them, one wonders? These forces work most evidently among people of a higher grade than those of whom we have been talking. We realize at Denison House the truth of the printed statements that over-education of the middle classes in Italy is creating what may be called an "intellectual proletariat," driving numbers on unemployment, and sending them across the sea. We have formed relations with many persons of this type,—men and women belonging to the higher trades or to the lower ranks of the professions. They have a hard time of it

here, harder than those brought up to manual labor, though a surprising number of them do become absorbed into the economic structure. One longs, as in the case of their simpler countrymen, to get them away from the cities, on the fruitful land with which every Italian has an instinctive intimacy. Meantime, one perceives that they are here and that many of them will stay. Can we afford to wait for the second generation, and to leave these to find their way alone? Hardly. These great numbers of men and women, mostly young, with the best part of their lives before them, are to prove an important factor in our civic life. They are well worth knowing. The poets and thinkers of the Latins, from Mazzini and Carducci to Georges Sorel, are on the tips of their tongues; their minds are atingle with the European issues, political and religious, concerning which we read in the magazines. They are hardly aware that there is an intellectual or artistic life in this country; nor is this strange, since they come in contact with us chiefly through the economic struggle; but they are polite if one tries to talk Emerson to them, and they take a genuine interest in Roosevelt. To seek intimacy with them, and to establish a medium in which the best in each race can reach the other, is a privilege, an opportunity, a duty. One must start where one can. It is important to begin by evincing an interest in the things for which they care. Dante will do, but Lombroso or Ferrero is better, for this is a rationalistic generation, intent on the watchwords of exact science, cynically anti-clerical, and repudiating mysticism with bravado.

We are groping our way to vital contact, much after the fashion of the Barnard relief. The center of our enterprises is a large club, the *Circolo Italo-Americano*, which meets at the settlement. It is of mixed membership, but on the whole it represents a restless, ambitious Young Italy, quickly responsive, sensitively critical, not to say captious, enamored of ideas, helpless in action, unreasonable, prejudiced, appealing. It is distinguished from the ordinary settlement club by the initiative of its members. This year the entertainments are

furnished by successive committees. Our most popular enterprise is a series of Sunday afternoon lecture-concerts that fills a hall at the North End. We aim to have as many lectures as possible on American themes, but it is hard to get speakers equipped to treat them, and we cannot be surprised that the Italians allude to the platform as "our forum." The lectures result less in giving the Italians instruction in American ideals than in an invaluable chance for them to attain self-expression and for us to learn their point of view.

We find it significant to notice what these courteous, vehement people are really thinking about us. The general attitude toward American life was fairly represented by a lecture last season. The speaker, a distinguished Italian physician, chose as his theme, *The Reaction of American Life on the Italian Immigrant*. What was the effect of America? Economically good, morally bad. More money, yes: better housing,—though with a hit at our city tenements,—the removal of many restraints, the gain, in particular, of religious liberty; training in business capacity, and practical power. On the other hand, the generation of new diseases,—especially tubercular and nervous; the development of cheap social ambition, showing itself in "Americanization" of voice and dress; a lapse in courtesy; and, briefly, a general hardening and coarsening, and the supplanting of idealism by a purely materialistic attitude. Was it possible for Italians to feel any patriotic attachment toward the United States? The idea was scouted: "While their love for their own country grows lukewarm they gain no profound attachment for the new. For the love of country ceases to exist if instead of a basis in sentiment it is derived solely from material utility. Patriotism can never be felt by people driven here by the desire of greater well-being who are bound to the American people by no community of historic memories. In a country like this, where habits and traditions of so many nationalities blend, genuine patriotic sentiment yields to an opportunist and utilitarian travesty of patriotism." . . . Was it a good plan

for an Italian to be naturalized? Economically yes, since except in some special instances it increased his practical advantages. Morally no, since the possession of a vote meant entrance into the degrading corruption of our American politics. And so on and so on.

Surely we cannot allow this impression to endure if we can help it. We cannot accept the opinion of the lecturer that love for the United States is a ridiculous impossibility, nor can we acquiesce in the conviction that American life must always either coarsen or disappoint. How, insensibly to alter this attitude? This is the problem before us.

It would help if we could promote an intelligent understanding of the better drift of things in America. We try to do so by the dissemination of literature prepared by Italian and Americans working together and giving practical information no less than instruction in our national ideals. Some of this literature has already been described in these columns. Our latest publication is a Civic Decalogue for the new citizen which has been in great demand and which we have now handed over to the Civic League for Immigrants. Our club meetings, our lec-

ture courses, have all the same aim. Yet all these things amount to what the Italian press, in a moment of scorn, described as "rhetorical exercises." Speech needs to be supplemented by wholesome action, and one fruitful type of action we found this autumn in our exhibition of Italian arts and crafts. The *circolo* esteemed itself most fortunate in enlisting the co-operation of Miss Adelene Moffat whose unusual combination of "social" instinct and artistic training gives her rare aptitude for such leadership. Miss Moffat describes the enterprise on another page of this issue. Certainly, to bring out into the light and to encourage those fine and patient handicrafts which these people bring to our shores, is to help not only them but ourselves in a practical way. Not the least valuable by-product of the exposition was the introduction into a colony ravaged by dissensions and languishing for fresh air, of a healthful and beautiful interest.

Candidly, it is not easy to quicken loyalty to America among an immigrant people. Perhaps the best way to reach our end is to make them look forward. Let us cease sentimentalizing to them over a past that seems to them petty, or



CORNER OF MAIN HALL.

boasting over a present in which they experience at best a dubious good; let us enlist their co-operation in the achievement of the future which we all desire. If we can but flash on the eyes of the Italians that vision of the America to be which is the inspiration of the great fellowship of social workers, we shall steady and uplift them, and we may gain strong allies in our struggle for social righteousness. One longs to introduce a sacred passion to counteract the pettiness, the languid cynicism, that corrode these colonies. The dream may be Utopian, yet we are dealing with the heirs of the Risorgimento, with hearts that still leap at the name of Garibaldi. The Latins, call history to witness, need an ideal or they perish. High sacrifice is easier to them than tame respectability. I believe that if we can make them catch the light of that social ideal for which we strive, if we can bring them into touch with the great healthy movements of social reform in progress among us, with the campaigns against tuberculosis and child labor, with the struggle for the cleanliness and beauty of cities and for a living wage, we shall bring them effective help. This great mass of intelligent youth that so easily is slipping into capacious apathy may at a touch become a menace to peace and productivity. At

another touch, it might, it may, become enlisted on the side of good. The powers of salvation are positive, and faith, ardor, and purpose are the only means of routing corruption and despair.

Thinking largely of the need of our immigrants, how vast a program appears! Adequate care for the sick and poor, so often at present undiscovered by our best endeavors; social intercourse so full that every Italian who cares for it may make American friends; educational work, through voice and print; the encouragement of all sound talent and fine gifts; and, finally, an appeal to chivalry, resulting in organized forms of co-operation for the outworking of our national ideals. No one house, no one institution, can put into effect more than a few details in this program, but all can do something who will realize the fundamental necessity of working on democratic lines, in close fellowship with the more intelligent Italians and with willingness up to a certain point at least, to follow their lead. So for us all will come a slow widening of horizons, an overcoming of prejudice and suspicion, the advance toward fraternal harmony and productive peace. The chaos between us is thick, but finger-tips are touching. Let us keep on till we are in the open, face to face.

THE EXHIBITION OF ITALIAN ARTS AND CRAFTS IN BOSTON

ADELENE MOFFAT

AMERICAN CHAIRMAN

The exhibition of Italian arts and crafts held recently in the new Franklin Union Building in Boston proved an interesting example of the value of co-operation. It is very doubtful if any of the three groups co-operating in this instance could have secured singly, the very significant values of this exhibition. It is certain that it could not have been held so soon and with so great an economy of effort and of material resources. The by-products also would have been less varied and less valuable.

These three co-operating groups were the Circolo Italo-Americano of Denison House, the Franklin Union, and a small group interested in the "conservation of the artistic possibilities of our composite nation." The Circolo under whose auspices the exhibition was held, and whose vice-president, Signor Luciano Campesi, was Italian chairman is outlined in this number of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, by its inspiring and devoted president, Miss Vida D. Scudder of Wellesley College. The offer of the Franklin



MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, WOOD CARVING AND CABINET WORK.

Union to house the exhibition in its dignified and beautiful new building gave it at once, particularly in the eyes of the Italians, an importance the value of which it would be difficult to overestimate. The fact that the union, founded by Benjamin Franklin, is a technical night school for men in industry added a special significance and value to the installation of the exhibition under its roof. The third group co-operating in this enterprise is entirely informal. It is composed of men and women in business and professional life whose social interest has led them to study the life in crowded and foreign quarters of our great cities.

The outcome of several conferences held in May, 1907, was a report accompanied by a definite outline for proposed work. A paragraph or two quoted from this report will perhaps indicate the intention of the present exhibition and what the committee hopes may be some of its resultant values.

"There is a considerable body of evidence showing that talent which could be saved to society goes to waste, that special ability is misdirected, and that this waste and misdirection is often averted by the right word spoken when needed so that the career of an indifferent workman has at times been transformed into one of highly skilled artisanship, the indifferent pursuit of a mediocre voca-

tion into one more in harmony with the maximum ability of the individual. The idea, therefore, that talent among those of limited resources is needlessly wasted rests not on theory but on years of observation. . . .

The various nationalities coming to our shores have been studied statistically from the point of view of the economist, from almost every point of view but that of the higher and unique possibilities of each nationality. . . . In our desire to Americanize the newcomer, to make him like ourselves, we have failed to appreciate, in fact we have made it impossible for him to contribute his industrial and artistic best. True democracy would suggest that the immigrant be encouraged to give us what he most deeply cherishes in his inheritance."

How deeply this attitude would be appreciated by the foreigner may be judged by the touching gratitude expressed by a group of the exhibitors chatting in a corner at the recent exhibition: "Now we may believe that the art of our forefathers will not die here in America. Our children do not wish to learn our arts from us. They think no one will care, that they will work without money, without the people to see, but now,—they will see this great exhibition, they will see these crowds of people, rich people, educated people, who come and are amazed,—who think of us with respect." That the governor of the commonwealth

did not think the exhibition too unimportant to be opened by him in person was an honor felt by the whole Italian colony and reported back to Italy.

The exhibition was designed simply to express in three dimensions the very significant fact that Italians do not leave behind them in their own beauty-steeped country either their love of beauty or their ability to produce it. It was not expected that the artistic merits of this first exhibition would be high. It was designed primarily to find out what Italian artists and craftsmen there were in Greater Boston, who they were, where they were working, and what they were doing. The exhibition was set on foot in the spring. During the summer and fall advertisements were inserted in the Italian papers, firms producing artistic furniture or handiwork of other sorts, were questioned to know if Italians were in their employ. The directory was consulted and individuals with any acquaintance among the Italians were interviewed. Many visits were made by members of the committee in places which gave no hint of being the shelter of beauty of any sort,—“from cellar to garret” was not a figure of speech,—and when to these were added the hot back rooms of big business blocks, the noise and dust of great workshops, the impression left was one sharply in contrast to the effect produced by the exhibition. When the exhibition was finally installed it was to almost everyone a genuine surprise. Much of the work was not above criticism, but much of it was so far beyond what any but a very few people supposed could be produced in America that the general impression was one of excellence. In the departments of book illuminating, of wood carving and of embroidery and lace making, there were examples of work quite in the spirit of the middle ages, simple, dignified, faultless in execution.

The exhibition included painting, sculpture, clay modeling, wood carving, inlaid work, floor and wall mosaics, book binding and illuminations, embroideries and laces. A competition for which

prizes in gold were given for the best musical composition produced in Boston was added at the earnest request of the Italians. Another interesting feature was the craftsmen at work. No one could watch that inherited deftness of hand shaping the delicate intricacies of filagree silver, or coaxing the clay to come to life without pausing to regret that it is the shovel and not the craftsman's tool that the Italian immigrant usually finds with “its handle to (his) hand.”

The habitual visitor of arts and crafts exhibitions could hardly fail to compare this exhibition with its American counterpart. While the American work would be far superior in design, the Italian excels correspondingly in execution. The curves and lines made with the needle are as true and free as if described by an artist's brush. In the wood carving there are no concealed accidents, no compromises, in the lace and embroidery no questionable short cuts to effects. The sincerity of nearly all of the work is impressive. The limits of this paper do not admit of more than the most general description of the exhibition and of the point of view from which the experiment was made. The success of the experiment suggests that there are distinct reciprocal values to be secured through the co-operation of Americans with Italians, in encouraging the production of artistic hand work. The American and the Italian point of view acting and reacting upon each other ought to produce a type of art from which some of the faults of each would be in a large degree eliminated.

The immediate effect of the exhibition has been to stimulate the production of a distinctly higher quality of work on the part of the Italians and to arouse an equally marked interest on the part of the American public,—an interest which in an encouraging number of instances has resulted in seeking out the Italian craftsmen for work. It is fair to assume that in some of these cases at least, the work of the artist is being substituted for the product of the machine.

BRINGING COUNTRY TO TOWN

HARBORNE TENANTS, AN EXAMPLE OF ENGLISH CO-OPERATIVE ESTATE DEVELOPMENT

JOHN S. NETTLEFOLD

MEMBER OF THE COUNCIL, BIRMINGHAM; AUTHOR OF PRACTICAL HOUSING



KATE GREENAWAY AS AN ACTUALITY.

A row of houses in Harborne.

That the housing problem is all a question of how to build cheap houses, is, in my opinion, a dangerous half-truth. It is necessary to provide small houses at rents within the means of the wage earners, but it is not in their interests to cut down quality with a view of charging low rents in order to meet low wages. In the long run, wages follow rents; and therefore the policy enunciated above would eventually result in reducing wages; and than that there is nothing worse for employers as well as employed. The far-sighted housing reformer prefers a policy of levelling up rather than levelling down. On the one hand, we must endeavor to give the poorer classes (being content

to go by steps), better houses, and on the other hand we must not increase costs to such an extent as to oblige us to charge higher rents than the people can pay. This policy of slowly but surely levelling up is now being put into execution in Birmingham by Harborne Tenants Ltd. It is carried out on the lines of helping the people to help themselves, instead of doing everything for them as some impatient enthusiasts prefer to do.

About fifteen months ago, fifty-three acres of land were purchased at an average price of rather less than £300 an acre. The land was carefully and economically planned out. The average number of houses on the whole estate

works out at ten to an acre. The garden to each house is quite small because many tenants object to being bothered with a large plot of land. For those who want more garden land, allotments are provided at the rate of £10 an acre. Numerous small open spaces, as well as good sized recreation grounds, are provided on the estate. The houses on either side of the roads are seventy-two feet apart, and between them runs a sixteen-foot roadway, bordered with turf margins and trees, and then gravel footpaths, which abut on the front gardens of the houses. This arrangement gives more than the usual distance between the houses, and that means more light and air to each house; while the cost of construction is about one-half that of ordinary bye-law roads with the great advantage that tenants have something cheerful to look out upon, instead of the usual "dreary deserts of macadam."

As the interest on the cost of road construction has to be paid by the tenants, it will be seen that these modern town planning roads mean a considerable saving in weekly rents.

Another important item in the cost of estate development is the construction of the sewers. At Harborne, this is done on what is known as the "combined drainage system." That is to say—there is not a separate connection from each house direct to the main sewer; the drainage from several houses is gathered up and all conveyed to the main sewer through one connection. The modern system of road and sewer construction, as carried out by Harborne Tenants, results in a saving of something between sixpence and a shilling a week for each house, in spite of the fact that at present the society has to pay for the upkeep of these tree-planted roads, whereas in the case of ordinary bye-law roads, this upkeep is borne by the general body of rate-payers.

The houses themselves are built in blocks of two, four, six and eight, according to circumstances, and the positions of the houses. The total rents, including rates, etc., vary from six shillings to twelve and sixpence a week. Building was begun on January 1, 1908. There

are now nearly a hundred houses completed, and another thirty or so on the way. The applications for the houses are fifty per cent in excess of the number of houses available.

The inside accommodation provided is on the whole not quite so roomy as can be obtained for equal rents in houses provided on the old fashioned lines, forty or fifty to the acre. Our tenants have to pay something for the surroundings of their houses as well as for the houses themselves. At first they did not quite realize the wisdom of doing this, but now they are thoroughly satisfied with the value they get for the rent they pay, a result achieved by adopting the principles of estate development on town planning lines, together with co-partnership house building and owning.

The capital required is raised by means of four per cent loan stock, the shares limited to a five per cent dividend, in addition to which, as houses are built, the Public Works Loans Commissioners, an English government department, lend us at three and one-half per cent, half the money spent on construction, which loan has to be repaid within a period of thirty years.

It is necessary to find some means of raising working capital at the outset because at this experimental stage the poorer classes are not able to raise immediately the money required for developing an estate. This is why capitalists are invited to take up loan stock. Tenant members pay down a small sum at first and then make weekly contributions until their holding in the society amounts to £200, the limit any one member of a Friendly Society is allowed by English law to hold in shares of such societies. There is no limit to the amount of loan stock any individual may hold. As the shareholders' money comes in, the Public Works Loans Commissioners' money, and the loan stockholders' money, is paid out. In my opinion, co-partnership housing loan stock is a thoroughly safe four per cent investment, but although for a new form of investment money has come in remarkably well, we could at present use more than we have secured. At the same time, the practical success



WEEKS AND MONTHS HAVE GONE INTO THE PLANNING AND ECONOMIES OF CONSTRUCTION OF THESE HOMES.

achieved is so great that there is no doubt that in a very few years unlimited capital will be at our disposal.

At the present time, our capital at Harborne taken altogether, costs us an average of 3.65 per cent. We provide .5 per cent per annum in order to build up a sinking fund that will enable us to write off the houses in about sixty years. Our repairs will not cost us more than .35 per cent on our capital outlay, owing to the fact that our tenants are already partly, and will eventually become entirely, their own landlords, which means that they will take care of the property; and our administration and general charges are not more than .5 per cent owing to the fact that various public-spirited men give their services free until the society they are connected with is an assured success:

Cost of capital	3.65 per cent.
Sinking fund.....	.5 " "
Repairs.....	.35 " "
Administration, etc.....	.5 " "

Total.....5.0 per cent.

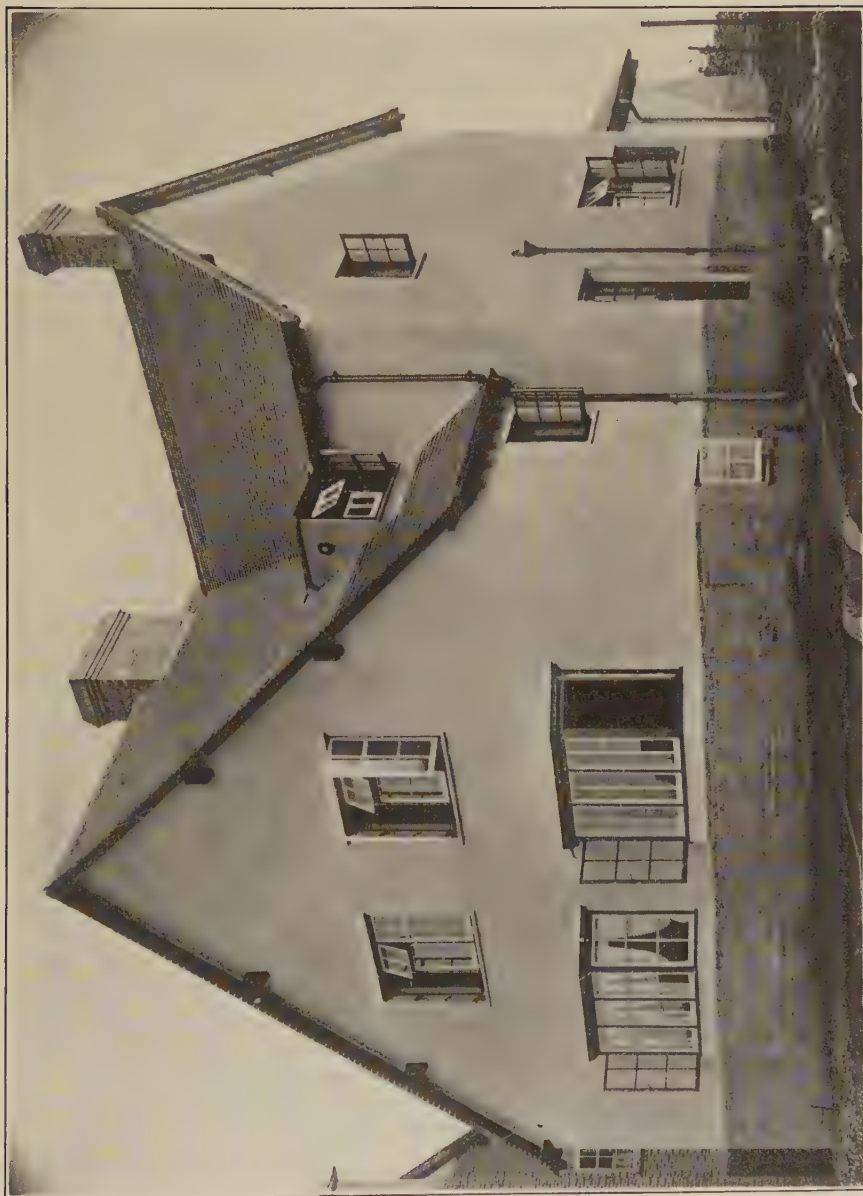
In order to provide for contingencies and build up a reserve fund, in addition

to paying a dividend on rent to our tenants members, the weekly house rents have to be fixed at a figure that will give us a return of six and one-half per cent to seven per cent on the capital outlay.

Harborne Tenants is only one of some dozen or so co-partnership housing societies scattered all over England, some of which have been going for some years, and none of which has failed. The latest society to be started is Hereford Co-Operative Housing Ltd. (inaugurated January 19), which is managed on lines very similar to those above described, but not federated with the parent society, Co-Partnership Tenants Ltd, 6 Bloomsbury square, London W. C., for reasons which it is unnecessary to explain here.

In one most important respect this society is doing better than any of the others. The Corporation of Hereford has bought the land and is developing it, that is constructing roads and sewers on the town planning lines described above.

The rent charged to the co-operative housing society, although putting no burden on the ratepayers of Hereford, is nevertheless very moderate, owing to the



STUCCO AND SLANTING GABLES.

There is no use in making low rental houses homely in any but its oldest meaning.

low price paid for the land, and the savings effected in road and sewer construction.

One of the great difficulties that these co-operative housing societies have to face is the raising of sufficient working capital. The action of the Hereford Corporation has very greatly assisted the Hereford society in this important respect. Another way in which the Hereford Corporation has helped not only the local society, but also housing reformers all over England, is by itself adopting the policy of common sense estate development on economical town planning lines. This admirable example will, I hope, before long, be followed by other local authorities, because until our English local authorities get out of the bye-law rut, our workingmen will not get satisfactory housing accommodation at reasonable rents. Our present cast iron bye-law system results in considerably increasing the rents of small houses, and at the same time giving the tenants what they do not want, indeed would rather be without.

It goes without saying that co-partnership garden suburbs, like all new things, have incurred criticism, more especially from the creators of the ordinary bye-law suburb, with whose business they are already interfering. These gentlemen are not satisfied with a safe four per cent; they want a great deal more, and are therefore doing their best to discredit co-partnership housing in the public mind. One writer in a Birmingham paper recently asserted that we had not touched the fringe of the real housing problem; his complaint was that we had not provided for the poorest of the poor. We think we do touch the fringe, and in our opinion it is our work on the fringe of the slum problem which is more likely than anything else to bring about the ultimate solution of the housing problem, by providing cheerful, healthy houses on the outskirts of big towns at reasonable rents.

In this we know we shall not succeed unless there is an efficient tramway system. Given good houses on the outskirts of large towns at reasonable rents, and



THE STONE ROLLER AND CIVIC REFORM.

Laying out a street in Harborne estate.

quick cheap trams from the center to the outskirts, a considerable proportion of those who now live in congested districts can move outside where land is cheaper and the air fresher. That means that for many workingmen the town will be brought to the country and the country to the town. How to deal with those who remain in the slums is too long a story to go into now, but by removing large numbers from congested city districts, we shall undoubtedly leave more room for those who are left behind.

Our policy is to aim upwards, not downwards. The levelling up process may possibly take longer than the policy referred to at the beginning of this article, of providing houses at low rents in order to meet low wages, but we think

permanent success in the solution of the housing problem is only to be achieved by those who are patient. We believe in hastening slowly. The housing problem is not merely a question of building houses—it is also a question of building up character.

Co-partnership housing, which is founded on two great principles, association and self-help, will, if combined with common sense estate development, do more than provide better housing conditions at reasonable rents; it will make way for better men and women, for healthier and happier children. The citizens of tomorrow need a healthy environment. As to the children of today, nothing is more important than easy opportunity for sensible recreation.



TWO FAMILY HOUSE.

Shows brick walls, old English windows and arched entry.

THE ENGLISH ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND THE RELIEF OF DISTRESS

C. S. LOCH

SECRETARY, LONDON CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY

The English Poor Law Commission has just reported in regard to the administration of the poor law in England and Wales, and on many grounds its report claims general attention. The poor law act of Queen Elizabeth has left its mark on legislation in the United States as well as in England, and, though honey-combed by case law, modified, and amended virtually in many ways, it still remains unrepealed in this country. The royal commissioners who in 1834 reported chiefly on the problem of that date, the relief of the able-bodied poor, re-interpreted the act, and proposed a policy of offering to the able-bodied a maintenance, subject to the condition of performing useful work supplied in work-house institutions—a maintenance less eligible than that of the free world outside. The poor law amendment act of the same year gave scope for the enforcement of such a policy, and, in accordance with the commissioners' recommendations, associated with it a re-organization of the whole "management of the poor." And now, once more, three hundred years after Queen Elizabeth's act, the subject has been again submitted to the examination of commissioners with a view to a survey of poor law administration in relation to the requirements of the present day, a new consideration of the laws affecting the poor, and an independent judgment on their present sufficiency.

The commission has yet to publish its reports on the administration of the poor laws in Scotland and Ireland; but its chief task has been accomplished. The reference to it was as follows:

To enquire (1) into the working of the laws relating to the relief of poor persons in the United Kingdom; (2) into the various means which have been adopted outside of the poor laws for meeting distress

arising from want of employment, particularly during periods of severe industrial depression; and to consider and report whether any, and, if so, what modification of the poor laws, or change in their administration, or fresh legislation for dealing with distress, is advisable.

The reference it is evident covers a wide field that extends far beyond what may be technically termed the administration of the poor laws.

PERSONNEL OF THE COMMISSION

The commission consists of Lord George Hamilton, as chairman, and seventeen other members. Lord George Hamilton was recently minister for India, and has had a wide administrative experience. Mr. Charles Booth was a member of the commission, but, unfortunately, owing to ill-health, was obliged to retire from it. Sir Samuel Provis, the permanent secretary of the Local Government Board for England, and Mr. J. Patten MacDougall, the vice-president of the Local Government Board in Scotland, and Sir Henry Robinson, who holds a similar post in Ireland, are members of it. Dr. Downes, the senior medical inspector of the Local Government Board for England, is also a member. The remaining members consist of persons who have a place on the commission owing to their interest in poor law administration, or in some branch of social work bearing closely on the subject of the reference. With one or two exceptions, their names will be to your readers names, and names only, but nevertheless I will mention them: Bentham, Gardiner, Lansbury, Loch, Nunn, Phelps, Smart (professor of political economy in Glasgow University) Wakefield, Chandler. The Roman Catholic Bishop of Ross represents Ireland, and there are three ladies—

Miss Octavia Hill, Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet, and Mrs. Sidney Webb.

The commission is thus, it may be said, a conglomerate, consisting of a small nucleus of official members, a body of members which represent very diverse views, and a chairman, whose experience, though wide, has been acquired in other branches of administration. In considering the report, the constitution of the commission should be borne in mind. The commission, whatever its shortcomings, has at any rate the merits of diversity and impartiality. Its report is signed by fourteen members. Four members make a separate report. The former report consists of 718 pages, the latter of 520 pages. The result is a monster volume, of which it is possible to give in this article only the veriest summary. The evidence which has been collected is very lengthy and will be published later.

This is a matter for regret, for the reader of a report should be critical; and on many points the evidence may supply him with the groundwork of criticism. It alone for instance will admit of his ascertaining how far on any point in either report there are signs of pre-judgment or over-statement, and whether in any way the evidence has been used scrappily and partially and without a due regard to its general purport and bearing. Or again, usually only by reference to the evidence can he make sure, whether or not the witness or the investigator, whose evidence is used or set aside, is suffering from the pathetic fallacy, and is the kind of person who finds that no one and no thing "will show" him "any good," or who sees social life and administration so sadly or with so strong a *parti pris* that he can view it only critically, or who looks on society as a miserable enormity never to be reformed until the maxims of his particular science in its present stage of development are universally applied, or until the claims of his own particular social scheme for the reorganization of the world are universally accepted.

The report of the commission divides itself broadly into three parts: the history of poor law administration and its state at the present time; industrial conditions

at the present time; and proposals for reform.

To take the three main divisions in turn:

POOR LAW ADMINISTRATION

The commissioners of 1834, to go back to the last great investigation, left matters in this wise. They pointed out the evil that was done to the laboring classes by carrying out the act of Queen Elizabeth, as if everyone, who might come under the general title of "poor," should be treated as though he had a right to work or relief. The economic structure of social life was destroyed by such a system. Employment was regarded, not as a matter of economic supply, but as a thing that had to be furnished irrespective of economic demand. The inevitable result was the provision in a great measure of what one may call pass-time employment. The supply of even such work as this was a difficulty. It could not easily be procured. It had no relation to the demand. The demand was that of the poor of the place. The supply was that which the rates might be able to afford them. There was no equivalence of benefit between the contracting parties. The one had all to lose; for the profit or advantage on work thus supplied was *nil* or a mere minimum. The other had all to gain. Able-bodied men were thus provided for irrespective of conditions of the market, and irrespective of their own exertions. They became the masters of the situation. As all claimed the right to work and were treated as if they had a right to it, the idle and the laborious were necessarily treated alike. Their relief, which had to suffice for the sustenance of a family, was granted equally in the one case and in the other; and the men engaged in the open market might well be worse off than the favored claimants of a non-economic-maintenance. Independence lost its rewards, and character tended to lose its rightful advantages. Allowances supplemented wages, or, when it was easier to pay an allowance than to provide employment, an allowance was given as "not less expensive."

This unhappy and ruinous climax in

the administration of a law, which was founded on the administrative theory of an earlier generation whom it was designed to place under a close economic and social control, arose at a time when the industrial movement in England was re-assorting the population and requiring it to meet new emergencies. Both economic opinion and the requirements of the day and the state of the poor favored a greater mobility of labor. The first condition of reform was to define the class "able-bodied poor," or "destitute able-bodied," to use the commissioners' words, not merely verbally but administratively, and to part it from the rest. For the latter there would be an exodus to the open market. On the other hand, for the destitute able-bodied who desired it there would be sustenance under conditions. The parishes in many parts of England had become centers of artificial contract and false statutory philanthropy. "Wages were no longer a matter of contract between the master and the workman, but a right in the one, and a tax on the other; and by removing the motives of exertion the laborer was rendered by the mischievous system, as far as possible, totally unworthy of his hire."

The cure of this was to attach conditions to the relief of the destitute able-bodied, in fact, to make the parish "the hardest task-master and the worst pay-master" which the laborer could find. And this principle, to which was given a new administrative application, served as a guide to show the way out of the embarrassments of the situation. The commissioners were of opinion that below the standard of the wage and comfort of the ordinary laborer there was another standard and other conditions. And these would suffice to meet the needs of the destitute able-bodied person who preferred life otherwise than in the open world of competition. In well regulated workhouses they could thus support themselves. "Except as to medical attendance . . . all relief whatever to able-bodied persons or their families otherwise than in well regulated workhouses shall be declared unlawful."

But it is necessary to remember that

these workhouses were to be established not as general workhouses, but as separate workhouses according to a general scheme of classification. To make this plan possible, the parishes were grouped in unions and placed under a single Board of Guardians elected from the parishes. Parish interests were gradually merged in union interests, and union chargeability eventually completed the change. A central organization of the poor law assisted by inspectors was created to control the new administration. But in one critical particular the scheme was not adopted. Instead of a classification by workhouses in the union a general workhouse in each union was established. The policy of the royal commissioners of 1834 thus differed materially from that of the poor law commissioners who immediately succeeded them as the central authority established under the new law. The workhouse became the general workhouse; and all classes were brought within the precincts of a single establishment.

The royal commissioners had been fairly satisfied with the administration of outdoor relief to the aged; and "medical attendance seemed in general to be adequately supplied, and economically if we consider only the price and the amount of attendance." They hoped much from the establishment of dispensaries. But the institution of general workhouses altered the terms of the whole problem. The question of administration generally became one of indoor or of outdoor relief. The "orders" that in certain directions still control the action of the Boards of Guardians, are careful to designate those who cannot receive outdoor relief. But the administration of outdoor relief itself has in general been left at the absolute discretion of the Boards of Guardians, and, medical relief apart, has tended to become a system of mere allowances and petty grants.

Thus two main evils come to light in regard to which all members of the commission are agreed. First, the workhouse is a general workhouse, and in that capacity does not and cannot help, or in any way provide properly for the destitute able-bodied. They degenerate in it,

if there is the ground work for reform in them. They require, instead of it, specialized treatment by trial or by task, developed as may seem advisable. They require classification also by institutions. For some hard manual work is necessary; for some at least a great effort to improve and train them; for some the labor colony and detention under disciplinary control provided by an allied authority, such as the Home Office, which has charge of prisons, homes for inebriates, and reformatory and industrial schools. Thus the workhouse in the case of the able-bodied has to be classified out of existence into institutions of various types. Treatment and discipline take the place of what has come to be maintenance with little or no hard work.

The problem of public assistance is now chiefly an urban question, not, as it was in 1834, a rural question. Want and deterioration are found now preponderantly in the cities, and the conditions are therefore more difficult to handle. But for that reason the substitution for workhouses of institutions necessary for the classes generally defined as able-bodied, for the sick, for the aged, for children, and for the "ins and outs" and vagrants, is the more pressing. Already the movement in this direction has set in. There are detached, and sometimes quite separate infirmaries in many urban unions. Children are chiefly provided for separately. It is suggested that vagrants should be dealt with by the police. But, whatever may have been done in this direction, it is now clear, that a complete reorganization is necessary, if public assistance is to be formative of character and generally ameliorative.

But next, another evil. If reorganization is necessary in regard to institutional treatment, it is even more so in regard to outdoor relief. The evidence shows that this relief is given often quite aimlessly, just as a mere plus to the income of the family whatever it be, and without any sufficient regard to the health of the members of the family, the sanitation of the home, or even sometimes the temperance or morality of the parents. It may thus perpetuate conditions which it is the first duty of the community to remove

altogether, if it is possible. It is agreed that there must be outdoor relief—at least in our English community, after these long years of systematic poor relief, and the only question is how to make it remedial, as far as may be, and beneficial. Throughout the principles are accepted that "the treatment of the poor" "should be adapted to the needs of the individual," and "if it be institutional that it should be governed by classification; that the "public administration" should co-operate "with the local and private charities of the district"; that the system of public assistance should be preventive and curative; and that independence and self-maintenance should be fostered.

Consistently with this it is required that "thorough enquiry" should precede home assistance, that the assistance should be adequate, that the case should be supervised and the relief be made conditional, that the conditions of the home, sanitary, medical, and other, should be taken into account and attended to, and that voluntary agencies should be used as far as possible for the personal care of individual cases. Thus the organization of "public assistance," as the report calls it, remaining a single public department, and dealing with many various kinds of help, would be practically recast, in view of its new and larger purpose. Such a change as this, obvious and obviously necessary as it is, will no doubt entail a great tax on the skill and ability of the community. It is the recognition of a public duty, already indeed recognized in a superficial sense, but now urged as indispensable, if relief is not to do more harm than good. It remains to be seen whether the community will respond; for after all whatever schemes may be put forward it is upon the vigilance and good sense of the community that their fulfillment depends. We are bound primarily by our own limitations.

Here a difference of opinion arises. Some, the members who have signed the minority report, say, as I understand them, that the conditions of social life require an entirely departmental treatment of questions of assistance, in connection with the several branches of departmental work. Thus education is a de-

partment, and attached to it there must be separate assistance for children. Health is a department on the sanitary side, chiefly and intentionally preventive: it should become a medical relief department also, should include all medical assistance and should provide for the incapacitated and helpless aged by institutions and domiciliary aid. It would thus be enlarged and be a health, sanitary, medical relief and infirmity department.

Again, old age is a department: it should therefore deal with the relief of the aged by pensions, as, for instance, under our present old age pensions act and under other supplementary acts which may extend the system of free pensions to lower ages. Unemployment is also, it is urged, a departmental question; and therefore there should be a separate Ministry of Labor which should deal with the able-bodied and supply employment or have it supplied at normal rates, as the demand may be deemed to require it; to give aliments to "widows or other mothers in distress having the care of young children, residing in homes not below the national minimum of sanitation"; and to have institutions for the able-bodied, for training, and for detention, at their disposal. Supervision is also considered a department. As a check on all the several departments, there would be a registrar's department. It would maintain receiving homes in which immediate cases would be received for subsequent distribution to the several authorities; and it would register all the cases dealt with by any of the departments. It would sanction all grants of home aliment, settle whether they were adequate and necessary, and would enforce payments, under such conditions as future statutes might require.

This scheme is termed the break-up of the poor law. It has the support of Mrs. Webb, and Messrs. Chandler, Lansbury, and Wakefield. To the majority it seemed that "the idea upon which it was founded was faulty and unworkable." It is not indeed really a break-up of the poor law, except in a very superficial sense. It is the establishment of five poor laws instead of one. It attaches a

poor law sub-department, or what must be a kind of relief-annex, to each department: education, sanitation and health, pensions, unemployment, and with all these, except the Ministry of Labor, there is associated the general subsidiary registration department. It divides the family into parts to be treated by the department available for each part. The case no longer remains the family group. The children may have relief through one authority—the educational. The father may be maintained by another authority, as for instance, through the Ministry of Labor, for he may not find his place among "the best available labor, at standard rates, engaged in the ordinary way," but possibly in a "detention colony of a reformatory type." The wife with her children would in that case receive aliment from the Ministry of Labor, or if sick she would be dealt with by the Medical Department, or if sixty, though on technical grounds she was disentitled, she might nevertheless receive a pension from the Pension Department.

Such a division of the family is in my judgment quite unscientific. It splits up the problem arbitrarily; it does not in any true sense analyze it. The parts of a family are coherent and must be dealt with as a whole. Children are not berries that you can pick off a bush and concoct into a separate life. Nor does assistance consist of allowances. So to treat it is to make it simply a system of miscellaneous subventions. To exact conditions as to sanitation and other matters is good, but it is not necessary to promote this departmental sub-division to effect that purpose. On the contrary if the case, as we should say, were treated as a whole, these conditions would be more effectually enforced. What one member of the family may not do another may help forward. In the individuality within the family lies the strength of the family. To use this strength one body must consider and settle what should be done and must follow the case through its difficulties, aided of course by the help of personal workers and what assistance may be required from other quarters. To take the opposite line is to run every risk of failure.

Relief which comes from three or four unassociated agencies cannot but be both difficult to control and inconsistent in purpose: and the only sufficient association of such different agencies must be found in some central thinking and planning agency with which other bodies co-operate for a common end.

It may be said indeed that each department having a separate function, each should have also its separate relief system; and that in these days of specialization no single administration can take cognizance of the variety of methods that it may be desired to turn to account. But this plea rests on a misunderstanding. Assistance is itself a department of work and represents a separate function. It is an art which has its own methods, a central art, in accordance with which help of various kinds is concentrated for a common purpose. Separately given, the relief of children will weaken the family and so harm the children; the relief of parents provided for themselves alone will weaken their sense of obligation. Normally, if there is to be an ultimately successful treatment of a case, the family must be dealt with as a whole.

There may of course be rules in regard to payments, where possible, being exacted from beneficiaries. But independence is not preserved in that way alone. The application of such rules depends greatly on the standard of responsibility adopted by the individual administrator. Independence is a more complex matter. It is an attitude of mind. And to preserve it or to revive it the sense of responsibility generally must be wrought upon and realized as much as may be possible. If the independence of the people is of secondary importance, and it is contemplated that there might or should be a form of society in which all are to be working or non-working dependents on the state, then, possibly the opening of these several sluices of relief may not matter. But that is to treat the administration of relief not as a problem in itself, as affecting an independent people, but as a stepping stone to a new polity. That polity may or may not be desirable: but it certainly lies outside the determination

of the questions under discussion. And at present all our experience goes to show that, if people in distress are to be helped thoroughly, care must be taken to strengthen as well as to help them, and that what is wanted for this purpose is good planning and concentration, not division of counsels and the dispersion of effort. The majority who sign the report of the commission stand clearly for the better organization and use of public assistance as a whole.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS

Passing next to industrial conditions, a historical survey of which is furnished in the report, and postponing for a moment the recommendations which the commissioners make in support of the administrative changes which they suggest, we find that the commissioners lay great stress on the immediate adoption of preventive measures. To prevent the evil effects of unemployment they propose unemployed insurance in some form, difficult though it may be to carry it out successfully without further experiment. This insurance applied in many ways and to varying industrial conditions they consider a first line of defence. Next they advocate the organization of labor exchanges throughout the country. For the former some grant may be required from the state, for the latter provision would have to be made almost entirely by the state. This is to break new ground on a scale never before attempted, and, again, the difficulties as well as the advantages are obvious. Next as a third line of defence a contributory and compulsory insurance against invalidity, and also an optional system, which might fit into the administration of the Friendly Societies in this country, are submitted for consideration, though not actually recommended. Next comes a re-organized system of medical relief on provident and payment lines, supported and promoted by Medical Assistance Committees in the counties and county boroughs. Next a line of defence is found in a recognized and responsible administration of voluntary aid; and lastly there is the new system of public assistance.

Thus we turn to a statement of the administrative reforms that are recommended.

PROPOSED REFORMS

The *ad hoc* election of guardians of the poor has failed, it is argued, to produce the type of men and women required for the work of public assistance. If the policy of institutions for different classes of cases is adopted in the place of the policy of the general workhouse, a larger administrative area than that of the union is indispensable. This larger area will be found in the county or county boroughs. Instead of institutions being provided for the comparatively small area of the union, they will be provided for the larger area of the county. Thus the necessary institutional treatment will be immensely varied; and this will affect every form of assistance. There may be on this plan separate homes for the aged, special institutions for the sick, special industrial and agricultural institutions, farm colonies and labor colonies for the unemployed able-bodied—indeed for all the necessary specialism of the modern treatment of distress ample provision may be made. For the “unemployed,” in the broad sense of that term, ample provision will be made, subject to the condition that this provision will be less attractive than self-support in the open world. With these changes there will be a change in the area of rating. The rates in future would fall on the county and county borough and not on the union. And again, consequent on this, a further change will follow. Settlement and removability will not depend on settlement in the parish but on settlement in the county or county borough. The adoption of the larger area will take away very many occasions of dispute and will leave settlement extremely simplified. The methods of obtaining a settlement will be reduced to two or three, and settlement by a year’s residence will take the place of the settlement by three years’ residence, which is now in force.

But the change of area entails yet further changes. The institutions would be under the management of a Statutory Committee appointed by the council of

the county or county borough. This committee would be called the Public Assistance Authority and would be formed half of members of the council, half of outsiders who are specially selected as suitable for this work on definite grounds. In the metropolis a fourth of the members of the Public Assistance Authority would be appointed by the Local Government Board, thus bringing in another broadening element. Thus it is hoped that an administration may be formed, inclusive of the men and women who are best entitled to take a part in the control and supervision of the public assistance of the county or county borough, and that the injurious intervention of party politics in matters that should lie entirely outside the sphere of politics, will be prevented or reduced to a minimum. To this body would be attached as chief of its staff a director of public assistance in the county.

The relations of the Public Assistance Authority in the county or county borough to its superior authority and to the authorities appointed by it will complete this sketch of the proposed new constitution.

At the center there will be a Public Assistance Division of the Local Government Board which will retain all its powers of regulating assistance by orders and will have at its disposal an increased staff of inspectors. The duties of these inspectors will be enlarged or at least in practice made more ample, especially in regard to the scrutiny of all local relief work, outdoor as well as indoor. There will thus be a strong central control linked to the Public Assistance Authorities throughout the country.

Below the Public Assistance Authorities there will be, instead of the present Boards of Guardians, Public Assistance Committees. These will be appointed by the Public Assistance Authorities and will deal with districts similar to the present union areas, and be responsible for the treatment of individual cases. The work of relief at the home will devolve on them. They will have the aid of a superintendent and other officers subordinate to him. The local official organization will thus become unified, and the

superintendent will have a more influential and responsible position than is usually assigned at present to the clerks of Boards of Guardians or any other officer employed by the boards. The officers will be appointed by the Public Assistance Authority.

For the organization of medical relief, both that of the public assistance and that of a voluntary free or provident type, the Public Assistance Authorities are to appoint County Medical Assistance Committees with large powers of co-ordinating institutions and supplementing them in practically any way that they may find desirable; and also they in their turn will appoint local Medical Assistance Committees to serve in co-operation with them in the local districts. Thus—what is altogether new in England—in the several counties and county boroughs authorities would now, it is proposed, be charged with the duty of organizing medical assistance as a whole, and all hospitals and dispensaries would thus by degrees be brought into standing relations with one another and with public medical assistance. Thus again the system of public assistance would be more closely knit together in all its parts and its scope would be enlarged.

The same policy of a widened horizon is proposed in the case of voluntary societies which would again be correlated with the non-voluntary system. We have in England a Charity Commission, whose task it has been to prevent the loss or mismanagement of endowed charities by a general supervision, by the application of the method of official trusteeship for charitable funds and lands, and by the introduction of new schemes by which endowments, which have become obsolete or whose purposes require re-adaptation, are revised and re-adjusted. This commission does not now deal with what are termed voluntary, that is, generally speaking, contributory, and non-endowed charities. It is proposed to bring these charities within the purview of the commission, and to give to them facilities for registration, under conditions of financial accountancy similar to those that are required of Friendly Societies which are registered by the Friendly Societies reg-

istrar. Registration would be optional, but would carry with it definite advantages. It would give the society a qualified civil status. Registered societies or institutions only could receive applicants dealt with by the Public Assistance Committees. They only could nominate persons for appointment as members of the County and County Borough Voluntary Aid Councils, or as members of the Voluntary Aid Committees. They only could receive subscriptions now payable with the approval of the Local Government Board to voluntary institutions which are of service to the guardians in their work.

Thus then the charities would have a status and would be brought into the common work of assistance. They would be represented on the Public Assistance Committees through members of the local Voluntary Aid Committees, and on the Voluntary Aid Committees members of the Public Assistance Committees would serve.

But this requires a further word of explanation. When by these means a status is given to the voluntary societies on the basis of registration, it will become the duty of the lord-lieutenant in a county or a mayor in a county borough to appoint a Voluntary Aid Council which would be a supervisory body, and which would be the recognized central body for voluntary work of all kinds for the county as a whole. It would collect funds for distribution to Voluntary Aid Committees, and would allocate funds to poor districts.

In relation to it would be the Voluntary Aid Committees which would aid persons in distress, whose cases do not appear to be suitable for treatment by the Public Assistance Committees, and applicants for public assistance, whose cases had been referred to the committee by the Public Assistance Committee. These Voluntary Aid Committees will be centers for the registration of all local cases and for systematic home visitation.

Thus the wall of partition between "poor law" and "charity" would be broken down, a gateway would be made, and a system of friendly visiting would receive official approval and would be made use of by the Public Assistance Com-

mittee. This is not to introduce the Elberfeld system, by which the outdoor relief would be administered by official voluntary visitors. It is to connect a system of voluntary visiting with the official system, so that the duty of the supervision of relief at the home should be divided among responsible visitors. And this method represents the line which those who have desired to adapt the Elberfeld plan to English conditions have hitherto followed. It is likely to preserve the spontaneity of voluntary action on which largely its remedial ability must depend, and prevent its being hardened into an officialized administration. Needless to say that recent experience in cities in Germany, France, the United States, England, and elsewhere has been considered and turned to account in the part of the report that refers to this subject.

Lastly as the center for the registration of voluntary societies the name of the Charity Commission should, it is suggested, be altered to that of the Charities Commission. It would be attached to the Local Government Board and the president of the board would represent it in Parliament. The schemes under which Voluntary Aid Councils and Committees are appointed would be submitted to the commission for approval. A further proposal is also made. It is recommended that the dole charities, which are very

numerous in some counties, should be by statute altered into charities for the relief of distress, so that old and obsolete conditions which now prevent their utilization for that purpose may be set aside, and they may be made available for distress as it may arise in individual cases, and not distributed in gifts to the poor generally.

The report proposes indeed what is, in fact, not merely a "poor law" administration, but an administration of public assistance, an administration which, it may fairly be said covers directly or indirectly the whole field of distress.

I have entered into some particulars in this article which may perhaps not be of interest to the general reader. I have thought, however, that from the point of view of administration, the question in which many of your readers would be interested, it was better that I should mention these details, rather than refer to them only in general terms. In any case it will be clear, I hope, that new proposals of large scope and purpose are now made, new in great measure, I believe, in the administration of assistance here and in other countries, and that a new and responsible position is given to voluntary work, but above all to the friendly visiting which is so well developed in the best voluntary associations in the United States of America.

THE INITIAL ACTIVITIES OF THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

ROBERT W. DE FOREST

Had Mrs. Russell Sage wished to perpetuate the name of "Sage" in such manner as to challenge the attention of all observers, her foundation would have taken some material form instead of being a still-working educational force. She might have built a pyramid, or a new Colossus of Rhodes, which would have caught the eye and put to shame some of the seven wonders of the ancient world. Had she, and the trustees whom she has associated with herself in the Russell Sage Foundation, sought to ad-

vertise the work of the Foundation, to gain acclaim for all it is doing, they might have insisted on branding every activity in which it took part with its sole name. In doing so, however, they would have lost the co-operation of many of the forces and many of the individuals who are seeking in different ways to accomplish the purpose of the Foundation; that is "the improvement of social and living conditions." And by so doing they would have been acting contrary to one of the principal means suggested by Mrs. Sage



MRS. RUSSELL SAGE.

in her letter of gift for carrying out this purpose. For these reasons the Foundation has sought to ally itself with other existent forces and other individual efforts working in the same direction.

In carrying on the business of some imaginary firm, which for purposes of illustration may be called "Brown, Jones, Robinson & Co.," it might gratify the pride of "Brown," or "Jones," or "Robinson," to have it known that he was entitled to the entire credit for any successful venture, but it would not have made the success of the venture any greater to have had his part in it thus recognized.

Just so in the great national work of improving social and living conditions. While it might gratify the vanity of any particular society, or association, or individual, to have its or his part in that work recognized, such recognition would not affect the result accomplished, and might create jealousies which would retard future effort. It is with an eye single to the beneficent result to be accomplished, and with absolute disregard of the degree of credit for its accomplishment which might come to the Russell Sage Foundation, that its initial steps have been taken. The Foundation is quite ready to be known as playing a leading part if thereby the drama can be brought to a satisfactory conclusion, and it is equally satisfied to take a humble role, and even entirely efface itself, if thereby a successful climax can be reached.

Any adequate description of the work of the Foundation necessarily involves knowledge of its scope and knowledge also of the limitations of that scope prescribed either by the donor or by the action of its trustees. Therefore a brief statement of these purposes and these limitations should precede any description of its initial work.

The purpose of the Foundation, as set forth in its charter, is "the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States of America." Its charter also provides that it shall be within these purposes "to use any means to that end which from time to time shall seem expedient to its members or trustees, including research, publication, education, the establishment and maintenance of charitable or benevolent activities, agencies and institutions, and the aid of any such activities, agencies or institutions already established."

Mrs. Russell Sage, in her letter of April 19, 1907, which may be called her deed of gift, further defines the scope of the Foundation, and the limitations within which she wishes her trustees to act, as follows:

The scope of the Foundation is not only national but is broad. It should, however, preferably not undertake to do that which is now being done or is likely to be effectively done by other individuals or by other agencies. It should be its aim to take up the larger and more difficult problems, and to take them up so far as possible in such a manner as to secure co-operation and aid

in their solution.

In some instances it may wisely initiate movements, in the expectation of having them maintain themselves unaided after once being started. In other instances it may start movements with the expectation of carrying them on itself.

I have had some hesitation as to whether the Foundation should be permitted to make investments for social betterment which themselves produce income, as for instance small houses or tenements, in distinction from investments in securities intended only to produce income. I realize that investments for social betterment, even if producing some income, may not produce a percentage as large as that produced by bonds or like securities, and that the income of the Foundation might be therefore diminished by such investments. On the other hand, if I fail to give the Foundation powers in this respect it may be unable to initiate or establish important agencies or institutions.

I decide to authorize the trustees of the

TRUSTEES OF THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

MRS. RUSSELL SAGE	President
ROBERT W. deFOREST	Vice-President
CLEVELAND H. DODGE	Treasurer

MISS HELEN M. GOULD
ROBERT C. OGDEN
MRS. WILLIAM B. RICE
MISS LOUISA LEE SCHUYLER
ALFRED T. WHITE

JOHN M. GLENN Secretary and Director

Foundation to invest the principal of the fund, to the extent of not more at any one time than one-quarter of its entire amount, directly in activities, agencies, or institutions established and maintained for the improvement of social and living conditions, provided that such investments shall, in the opinion of the trustees, be likely to produce an annual income of not less than three per cent.

Quite independently of Mrs. Sage's desires as expressed in this deed of gift, wise trustees would have naturally directed their efforts "in such manner as to secure co-operation and aid." Her expressed desire has made this course of action all the more imperative. At the very outset the broad scope of the Foundation not unnaturally attracted to it all kinds of proposals from many who were acting with the best intentions. It was overwhelmed with applications for individual and corporate relief. It was overwhelmed with applications from educational institutions of all kinds and churches of all denominations. It seemed important to the trustees to further define and limit its sphere of action. Consequently at one of the very earliest meetings the question of scope was considered and the following conclusions were unanimously reached:

THE SCOPE

(a) The Foundation will not attempt to relieve individual or family need. Its function is to eradicate so far as possible the causes of poverty and ignorance, rather than to relieve the sufferings of those who are poor or ignorant. Not that it is not a noble work to relieve suffering, however caused, but that if the Foundation should attempt to relieve such suffering there would be nothing left with which to perform the higher function of trying to prevent its existence. There is another equally cogent reason for this conclusion. The relief of individual need is not one of the "larger and more difficult problems." It is a duty which every one of us who is more prosperous owes to our less prosperous neighbor. Every neighborhood should relieve its own cases of individual need for its own sake, and every neighborhood is measurably meeting this obligation. The sources of neighborly charity would be dried up if such needs were supplied from without.

(b) The sphere of higher education, that served by our universities and colleges, is not within the scope of the Foundation. It is sufficiently cared for by the General Edu-

cation Board. Not so, however, elementary education of the kind that directly affects social and living conditions, *e. g.*, industrial education; education in the household arts, training of charity workers, etc.

(c) Aid to churches for church purposes, whatever their denomination, is not within the scope of the Foundation.

The initial work of the Foundation has been largely in the line of co-operation with other efforts, corporate and individual, and necessarily so, quite aside from the greater results to be obtained by combining its resources with the efforts of others. It could not otherwise have immediately made its income useful. It was fortunate in securing at the very beginning the services of John M. Glenn as director, but to have effectively used its resources directly through agencies created by it, or persons employed by it, would have involved deferring action until a staff had been gathered together and trained in its service. In whatever lines of progress immediate action seemed clear it was deemed wise to utilize its capacities for direction and its money promptly, and it was immaterial to the Foundation whether in co-operating action the Foundation should be known as the "Brown," "Jones" or "Robinson" of the firm, or whether it should simply be the nameless and frequently unknown, but none the less efficient, "Co."

EARLY ACTIVITIES

The early activities of the Russell Sage Foundation may be roughly grouped under several different heads.

First, educational propagandist movements directed toward ends clearly within the purposes of the Foundation, and as to which there could be no doubt of the expediency of action.

Second, research relating to lines of effort in which action might be expedient, but in which either expediency of action or the particular direction of action should be predicated on greater knowledge. Research, too, in the ascertainment and record of facts useful and necessary to direct future action.

Third, publication, either in aid of propagandist movements or of the results of research likely to be of general utility.

Fourth, aid to the corporate or individual effort of others.

Fifth, direct action by its own staff.

In all these varying kinds of activity its degree of control has varied from absolute direction to entrusting the entire direction to others, and its money contribution has varied from the whole to an insignificant part of the sums necessary to carry on undertakings.

Among the propagandist movements to which the Foundation has contributed both direction and financial support are the following:

PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS

At the time when the Foundation was organized the educational side of this movement was being successfully prosecuted in the city of New York under the leadership of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society. The National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis had been organized and was looking forward to the International Congress which was recently held in Washington. There had been no considerable educational movement in the state of New York. The Foundation provided the means whereby a very successful educational campaign has been instituted in New York state through the State Charities Aid Association, which through its county organization extending through the state, was able most effectively to reach the state at large. The result of this campaign has been that over a million dollars has been appropriated by municipalities, counties and individuals for tuberculosis hospitals, dispensaries, and other agencies. It has also helped the educational work of the Charity Organization Society in Manhattan, and the same work of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities in Brooklyn. The handbook of the national association, compiled by Philip P. Jacobs, and entitled *The Campaign Against Tuberculosis in the United States*, was printed as a Russell Sage Foundation publication. It has enabled the national association to accomplish several other special pieces of work and to begin some

educational work, which when once proved successful will be supported by individual contributions. The Foundation contributed to the International Congress at Washington. It also paid part of the expense of the recent tuberculosis exhibition in New York, which attracted the unparalleled attendance of about 750,000 people within six weeks, and made it possible to bring the exhibition here by a guarantee at a time when immediate action was necessary and action depended upon assurance of adequate financial support.

PLAYGROUND EXTENSION

The Playground Association of America was formed about the time the Russell Sage Foundation was chartered. It contained among its officers and members great enthusiasm but very small financial resources. One of the first things the Foundation did was to contribute the money necessary for a model playground and exhibit at the Jamestown Exposition. The great interest created by the first congress of the Playground Association, held in Chicago during the summer of 1907, made it manifest that important results could be accomplished throughout the country by the establishment and proper organization of playgrounds if an active propagandist movement to that end was instituted. The Russell Sage Foundation has contributed largely to this movement and has secured for it the guidance of Luther H. Gulick, M. D., president of the Playground Association, and his assistant Lee F. Hanmer.

Since the Foundation took part in this movement playgrounds have been established in about one hundred cities and about 175 have been projected under either municipal or private management. An active campaign has been carried on throughout the country by correspondence, personal visits, addresses and publication stimulating interest in and knowledge of the play movement.

CARE OF CHILDREN

The Foundation has been carrying on investigations into placing-out and the

management of institutions. The result has been very encouraging. Notable improvements in methods are reported in several states. The Foundation has recently secured the services of Hastings H. Hart as a member of its staff to oversee and direct its work for children.

CHILDREN'S SCHOOL GARDENS

The Foundation gave the money necessary to establish and operate at the Jamestown Exposition a model children's school garden. It has aided in the education of teachers for such gardens, and it has assured the continuance of a model garden in the neighborhood of New York to which the many who are seeking information and direction on this subject can be referred as a demonstration of what they can do in their own localities and how they can do it.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION EXTENSION

At the time when the Foundation was organized, a movement was in progress to promote the organization of such societies in cities in which they did not already exist and in which some form of charitable organization was needed to unite the philanthropic efforts of the community. This was under the direction of the Field Department of Charities Publication Committee of which department Miss Mary E. Richmond, of Philadelphia, is chairman. The Foundation has given this committee the means to secure the services of Francis H. McLean, formerly connected with the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, and Miss Margaret F. Byington, formerly of the Boston Associated Charities. The secretaries have visited some fifty cities and towns and report encouraging progress everywhere. One noteworthy accomplishment was the establishment of an Associated Charities in Pittsburgh and the bringing into concerted action a number of societies there which had been working on independent lines.

PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS

The Foundation has been supporting the work of a special committee of the

New York Association for the Blind, directed particularly to the prevention of blindness in children. A recent pamphlet on this subject, entitled *Children Who Need Not Have Been Blind*, issued by the committee, has had wide circulation.

RESEARCH

Illustrative of research relating to lines of effort in which action may be expedient are the following:

A careful study of workingmen's and other forms of small insurance, conducted at home and abroad by Lee K. Frankel, until recently general manager of the United Hebrew Charities.

A study of the evils of the salary loan business and of the chattel loan business.

The desirability of establishing an employment bureau in the city of New York. This last investigation, conducted by Edward T. Devine, will unquestionably lead to the establishment of such a bureau on a business basis within a short time, and the Russell Sage Foundation stands ready to supply as much of the needed capital as may be necessary to supplement individual subscriptions.

In co-operation with the school officials of New York city Leonard P. Ayres under the direction of L. H. Gullick has been making a study of the causes of slow progress among school children. Valuable discoveries have been made. Dr. Ayres's first report has been embodied in the annual report of the superintendent of schools. The problem can now be attacked with new hope of progress for the backward child.

Illustrative of research useful or necessary to record past experience for future use is a careful study of and report on the methods used and results accomplished in relieving the recent earthquake sufferers in San Francisco.

An important special line of research has been the so-called Pittsburgh Survey, under the personal direction of Paul U. Kellogg. When the Foundation was organized a study of industrial conditions in Pittsburgh was being made by the staff of *Charities*, as the basis for a special magazine number. The opportunity was seized to provide the means to extend this

into a wider and deeper study of social and industrial conditions in Pittsburgh as a typical American industrial city, and to assemble the material into a series of reports somewhat analogous to Charles Booth's famous study of the city of London. Part of this material has already been published in *Charities and The Commons*.¹ It will be embodied in several volumes now in course of preparation by the Foundation. As a direct result of the Pittsburgh Survey a Civic Commission composed of fifteen leading citizens of Pittsburgh, each chosen because of special qualifications, has been appointed by the mayor to work for the betterment of conditions in the city. The Survey will be the basis of the commission's work. Among other results have been the destruction of insanitary tenements and dwellings, the closing of some bad lodging houses, and additions to the inspecting force of the health department. Pittsburgh has received this constructive criticism in a generous spirit.

SCHOOLS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

The schools in Boston, New York, Chicago and St. Louis have been given the means to establish departments for social investigation. This has increased their ability to train workers and investigators and has produced some interesting studies.

PUBLICATIONS

The publications of the Foundation already number eight, and are in the form of books and pamphlets. They are standardized in form and typography. The titles of those already issued are as follows:²

First Steps in Organizing Playgrounds, Lee F. Hanmer.

The Field Day and Play Picnic for Country Children, Myron T. Scudder.

Campaign Against Tuberculosis in the United States, prepared by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

¹*Charities and The Commons*. Special issues for January 2, February 6 and March 6, 1909.

²Send orders and requests for information to Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York.

Medical Inspection of Schools, Luther H. Gulick, M. D., and Leonard P. Ayres.

* The Salary Loan Business in New York City, Clarence W. Wassam.

The Chattel Loan Business in New York City, Arthur H. Ham.

Report on the Desirability of Establishing an Employment Bureau in the City of New York, Edward T. Devine.

The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City, Robert Coit Chapin.

HOUSING

The subject on which the Foundation is at the moment placing great emphasis is that of the housing of the working classes. It is not proposing to duplicate the model tenement building of Phipps Houses, or the City and Suburban Homes Company, in Manhattan or Brooklyn, but it is giving serious attention to suburban housing. The recent purchase of some fifty acres of land near Jamaica, which has been credited in the public press to Mrs. Russell Sage, was a purchase by the Foundation. For more than a year past Grosvenor Atterbury, the well known architect, has been making for the Foundation studies for small houses, and experiments in cheap construction.

OTHER ACTIVITIES

Among the corporate or individual efforts to which the Russell Sage Foundation has contributed pecuniary aid are the following:

The National Red Cross, to secure the appointment of an efficient director. It was after this contribution that Ernest P. Bicknell was chosen to fill this new office.

The President's Homes Commission of the city of Washington.

The expenses of the recent Child Saving Congress in Washington were in large part defrayed by the Foundation.

The above statement of the initial activities of the Foundation is not inclusive or complete, nor is it intended to be. It is only illustrative. The Foundation has many lines of effort under consideration, and action in some is pro-

gressing. . . . Publicity would embarrass some of these efforts. Knowledge that the Foundation was aiding financially might deter contributions from others toward the same purposes and discourage desirable co-operation.

AN ADAPTABLE FOUNDATION

The fundamental idea of the Foundation is to place in the hands of qualified trustees the income of a considerable fund with power to use it in whatever particular way they think best from time to time to improve social and living conditions. It is not confined, as have been so many foundations in the past, to a single form of social betterment. A foundation most needed and most beneficent a quarter of a century ago might now, with the shift and change of social conditions, be comparatively useless. A foundation most wisely adapted to present needs might find those needs better supplied from other sources in the course of the next generation and thus become unnecessary.

Twenty-five years ago, improved tenements and playgrounds were among the greatest needs in New York, and could wisely have been made the purpose of

any foundation. Today these tenements are being supplied largely by individual enterprise, and the city has taken up the establishment and maintenance of playgrounds. Just so, great as are the present needs let us say of tuberculosis sanatoriums, and the extension of industrial education, another quarter of a century may find them supplied, in one case by the extension of our state and city hospital system, and in the other by an extension of the public school system.

The history of past foundations emphasizes this point of view. Many which were highly desirable when they were established have become useless and worse than useless.

More controlling, however, in determining the scope of the Foundation is the thought that with the constant change and shift of social conditions, and broadening, or it may be contraction, of the sphere of government activity, the future may develop other and greater needs for private philanthropic action than any which are now apparent.

For these reasons the Russell Sage Foundation was made sufficiently elastic in form and method to work in different ways at different times.

THE MONTH'S INDUSTRIAL SURVEY

GRAHAM TAYLOR

ANTHRACITE COAL MINING ISSUE

The far-reaching decisions of the government anthracite coal commission of 1903 are even more apparent now than during the six years in which that great industry has been peacefully operated under their rulings. Perhaps the greatest result thus attained is the manifestly increased respect for the interests and opinion of the public as the third and greatest party to every issue between the operators and miners, which threatens to interrupt the production of fuel. Deference to public sentiment is noteworthy in

the public statements of both sides in the present controversy over the terms of the new agreement between them, under which work is to be continued after April 1. The operators' statement is premised upon the fact that "since the coal consumers and the public are vitally interested in the maintenance of peaceful conditions in the anthracite fields, the operators desire to make clear their position."

It is quite apparent, moreover, that the tables have been turned in the attitude taken by each side toward the basis for

agreement laid down by the commission. The reluctance with which the operators first accepted it is now succeeded by their insistence upon its continuance. The miners' claim of victory in the commission's award is now followed by their insistence upon an entirely different basis for a new agreement. This change of front was cautiously initiated by President Lewis of the United Mine Workers of America at their annual convention last January, when he said: "In my opinion we ought to have a special committee appointed to consider the anthracite situation. The anthracite situation does not belong to the anthracite mine workers alone. The conditions there are subjects for all of us to be interested in, and the policy with reference to the anthracite field, on and after April 1, should be reviewed and determined by this convention. I think the convention should approve by motion, the appointment of a special committee, to be known as the scale committee, to take charge of the demands of the anthracite men and any other demands that may be presented at this convention." On recommendation of his committee the convention ratified the demands of the anthracite miners drafted in Scranton last October. These demands include an eight-hour day with no reduction in wages; a contract by which all coal shall be mined and paid for by the ton of two thousand pounds; a ten per cent advance in the wages of all employes now receiving \$1.50 or less a day, and five per cent advance for all receiving more than \$1.50 and less than \$2 a day; a contract made for one year at a time instead of for three years; and the recognition of the union as a party to negotiations in making contracts and settling disputes.

However important the other points at issue may be, this last one is the most radical departure from the previous basis of agreement, and on that account is the main contention. While the operators decline to accede to these other demands, on the ground that they would increase the cost of production and advance the price of coal unreasonably to the con-

sumer, they argue the point against recognizing the United Mine Workers of America. The reasons they give are that this national union is controlled by the bituminous mine workers, and that the government commission conceded the justice of this contention in declaring that "it was distinctly stated at the first meeting of the commission that the president of the United Mine Workers of America appeared before the commission as the representative of the mine workers in the anthracite region." In referring to Mr. Mitchell's able representation of the miners, the commission was careful to state that "in so representing them he appeared as the representative of the anthracite coal mine workers, and not in his official character as president of the United Mine Workers of America." And so the operators demand that Mr. Lewis and his committee enter into the new agreement exactly as Mr. Mitchell and his committee did in 1906, when the terms were "stipulated between the undersigned, in their own behalf and so far as they have powers to represent any other parties and interests" without any mention of the United Mine Workers of America.

The miners' committee on their part maintained that they acted in the interests of the anthracite districts, were not attempting to subordinate the anthracite to the bituminous interests and so represented the entire body of organized mine workers that if not recognized as representatives of the organization they had no standing, and could not venture to sign a contract which would bind anybody. This position is probably due to a fact that does not appear in the statements of either party at issue, namely, that since under the government commission's award the condition of the non-union and union miners have been more nearly equalized than ever before, there has been a sharp and steady decline in the membership of the unions in the anthracite field. While they numbered 125,000 members at the time of the award in 1903, there are said to be less than 30,-

000 of the 167,000 anthracite miners now organized.

However this exigency of the national society may have warranted its officers in taking this stand to recover its hold in the anthracite fields, it would seem that the unions in those districts would invite further disaster in deciding to strike against the renewal of the terms of an agreement which has proved so generally satisfactory to the economic interests of the anthracite miners. The tri-district convention held at Scranton March 23 met the gravest situation which has confronted their own interests and those of the entire country, since the strike of 1902 interrupted their fundamental industry and imperilled the prosperity, if not the peace, of the whole people.

While reaffirming their demands, the convention voted to remain at work after April first, and instructed the executive boards of the three districts to negotiate an agreement with the operators upon such basis as the boards in their judgment believed the conditions warranted. While this action leaves the question of a strike open, the decision is left with the miners most directly interested, the great majority of whom are said to be opposed to a strike. The resolution requesting President Taft to create a commission for the settlement of the outstanding issues similar to the one appointed by President Roosevelt in 1902, was not passed. After a heated discussion it also was referred to the three executive boards. As the leaders are nearly all against it, its passage is not at all probable.

ILLINOIS BILL TO PROTECT EMPLOYEES

The Illinois Industrial Commission appointed by the governor, as authorized by the General Assembly of the state, to inspect and report by a bill or otherwise, the most advisable effort of providing for the health, safety and comfort of the employes of factories, mercantile establishments, mills and workshops has just submitted the result of its labors to the Legislature. Whatever may be the fate of the measure which it recommends, the fairness and fraternal spirit with which the commission has arrived at its conclusions are most notable, and worthy

both of success and of emulation.

The commission included three manufacturers, prominently connected with the Manufacturers' Association of the state, three representatives of the State Federation of Labor, an eminent physician, an attorney experienced in drafting industrial legislation, and a citizen at large. While each manfully stood for his convictions as to the true conditions and their legal remedies, yet in all the inspections and prolonged sessions the utmost frankness, fearlessness and good fellowship prevailed. Learning from past bitter experience the fruitlessness of working at cross purposes or apart from their respective constituencies, the members of the commission decided to refer its conclusions as they were tentatively reached to the judgment of the two associations equally represented in its membership. The criticisms and suggestions evoked from the committees appointed by the employers' association and the labor federation to co-operate with the commission, were candidly discussed and independently acted upon in reaching the final result. In many instances the points most at issue were referred back to each constituency to get such concessions as would obviate the antagonism of either, and would make a unanimous agreement possible in signing the report and recommending the bill. Thus the cross-fire which hitherto has been disastrously reserved for the legislative arena was drawn from both sides at the preliminary consideration of the proposed measure. The organized opposition, which no previous bill for protection against dangerous machinery and unsanitary conditions has ever been able to survive, was not only forestalled, but the support of both sides was secured in advance for this bill, which therefore has the best prospects of enactment.

The possibility of overcoming apparently irreconcilable differences in the settlement of industrial issues was so happily realized in the experience of the commission that its own emphasis upon the conciliatory spirit which its members exemplified should encourage everyone to believe that peace with honor may thus be made in industrial strife. In the commission's report to the governor

which accompanies the bill presented to the Legislature this passage is well worthy of wide publicity: "The general subject of the bill has been considered by the two industrial forces of the state represented on the commission in the generous spirit of 'give and take,' in the hope that a measure might be prepared which would meet with the general approval of all parties concerned, and the experience of the commission has demonstrated that the differences between employer and employe are usually due to separate points of view, and to misunderstandings that arise therefrom. Many of these differences and misunderstandings have been happily eliminated by the impartial investigation made by this commission, and it is believed that the object of the commission has been achieved and that the measure proposed ought to be satisfactory to both employer and employe."

The desire to put themselves in each other's places, shared equally by both the employing and employed members of the commission, found such practical expression that great weight should be given to the advantage which just law is held to give to both sides in seeing their community of interests: "It is the belief of the commission that the provisions of the proposed bill are but little, if any, in advance of the ideas and practices of the progressive manufacturers of the state. Evidences of a desire on the part of the employer to meet modern industrial conditions were apparent in many of the places visited by the commission, and very little encouragement would be needed to induce the better class of manufacturer to introduce and maintain the reforms which are provided for by the proposed bill. Existing unfortunate conditions are in large part attributable to mere thoughtlessness on the part of the manufacturer, rather than the disposition on his part not to perform his full duty to the employe. This is engendered by the present state of the law in Illinois, which sets no standard for the manufacturer and imposes no duty upon him with reference to the health, safety and comfort of employes.

"No attempt has been made to impose burdens upon the employer to the extent

of making any machinery fool-proof; and on the other hand, regulations have been prescribed which, in the opinion of the commission, will reduce to a minimum the chance of accident to the average workman using reasonable care for his own safety."

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

Two years ago the Legislature of Illinois authorized the governor to appoint a committee of nine members to investigate thoroughly the causes and conditions relating to diseases and occupations and to report the draft of any bill designed to meet the needs discovered. The commission was not appointed, however, until late this winter and therefore it could report to this session of the Legislature only a general statement setting forth the causal connection between certain occupations and certain diseases. But it recommended that its tenure of service be continued for two years, and that \$15,000 be appropriated to secure the most expert medical investigation and to purchase the published results of all similar scientific inquiries which had hitherto been made. The officially representative and professionally expert personnel of the commission guarantees in advance the permanent value of its work, and should assure its continued service and the modest appropriation it asks. Its official members are the chief of the Department of Factory Inspection, the secretary of the State Bureau of Labor Statistics, the president and secretary of the State Board of Health. Its professional members are: Dr. Ludwig Hektoen and Dr. Alice Hamilton of the Chicago Memorial Institute for Infectious Diseases, Dr. Arnold C. Klebs director of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, together with James Simpson vice president of Marshall Field and Company and Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago.

This initiative in Illinois has been followed in Wisconsin by the introduction of the bill authorizing the commissioner of labor and industry to correct and publish facts on the effects of occupation on health.

The industrial and public importance

of these investigations as a basis for legislation is well argued in the preface to the Illinois act: "It is well known that sickness, due to unwholesome conditions, is one of the chief causes of extreme poverty and distress, of the interruption of the use of costly machinery and other capital, of the destruction of the lives of men whose energy and health are a source of wealth to the nation, and the support of dependent families, and thus becomes the occasion of immeasurable moral misery in the dread of apprehended trouble and the sorrow of actual bereavement."

PREVENTING MINE DISASTERS

As public interest is being painfully concentrated again upon the disturbed conditions in the anthracite coal fields, it is encouraging to get a hopeful note from the experiment station directed by the technologic branch of the United States Geological Survey. Since its establishment to further the work of discovering and preventing the causes of mine disasters the number of deaths a year has diminished by several hundreds as compared with 1907, a year in which 700 men lost their lives by four explosions, 356 of them in one of these disasters. Two discoveries will tend to decrease such catastrophes. One of them proves that the so-called "safety" explosives are in fact so dangerous that the miner endangers his life every time he fires a fuse. A bulletin will publish the facts about such explosives informing the miner what they may be expected to do, and also imposing additional responsibility for their use upon operators and state mining bureaus. Other experiments have demonstrated that coal dust is as dangerously explosive as fire damp. Both mining engineers and miners have hitherto insisted that coal dust will not explode unless gas is present. But it has actually been exploded at the testing station in the presence of several hundred operators and miners without the presence of gas. Experiments are now in process to discover how to avoid the perpetual menace in the mine from dust. It is expected that safeguarding life from improper explosives

will also result in saving serious waste of coal on mining. The appalling fact that 3,125 men, 4.86 for every thousand employed were killed in American coal mines in 1907—nearly four times as many in a thousand as are killed in any coal producing country of Europe—obligates the government to develop the possibilities of this testing station to the utmost.

HOLLAND'S CONTRACT EXPERIMENT

Extremes strangely meet in the issues between employers and employes as affected by law. In every land organized labor has made its chief contention for collective bargaining and the joint-trade-agreement. But when the States General of Holland enacted a law requiring all employers and those in their employ to sign special contracts or suffer penalty, trouble began on the day it went into effect February 1. Many workmen, both individually and collectively, refused to sign the special contracts. In the widely prevalent confusion into which the industrial interests were thus thrown, employers have been forced to employ lawyers as advisory members of their firms. Every class of employment is placed under the regulation of the law, excepting only government service, the army and navy and the merchant marine. So the ferment prevails all the way from the newspaper office to the kitchen of the private household. The government, however, expects that when the difficulties incident to the initiation of the law are surmounted, it will prevent industrial strife and form the basis of greatly improved relations between employers and employes.

If, as is generally conceded, the joint trade agreement is the best present basis for permanent and just industrial relationships, some further legal guarantee that the collective bargain shall be more faithfully adhered to, is generally felt to be necessary. Since trade unions so strenuously object to being obliged to incorporate and thus be held liable for breach of contract, this Dutch law may forecast the lines along which legislation may attempt to make the joint trade agreement binding on both sides.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The address of Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell at the recent farmers' week, has been issued in pamphlet form. Professor Bailey here leaves the general terms and recommendations of the report by the President's Commission on Country Life, of which he was chairman, and outlines a specific program of state rural progress, which, he says, is a necessary part of the impending national rural campaign. "A successful state campaign must come as the result of the federation or working together of all country life agencies within the state. We already have the beginnings of enough institutions and of sufficient forces to reconstruct our rural civilization if only they are well supported and if they co-operate genuinely for the general good."

These institutions in New York state, which make an impressive roster, include voluntary societies running all the way from Patrons of Husbandry to Y. M. C. A.'s; governmental departments, and farmers' institutes co-operating with them; a number of effective agencies on the research side and a well-rounded number of institutions on the college education side.

But "a farmer has a right to ask that his son and daughter be given facilities for country life education in his own school. It follows that all public schools should be open to education by means of agriculture on the same terms that they are open to education by other means." The industrial education act of 1908 lays the foundation for this and Professor Bailey sees prospects of great advance through it.

But there are many other public agencies which can bear their share in the campaign. Every farm conducted by a prison, asylum or almshouse should be a local means of demonstrating the most advanced type of farming for its neighborhood. The thousands of acres located directly in the centers of the best communities, which "are used only one week each year and even then perhaps with little effect on the betterment of country life," property of the county fairs, should be put to use the other fifty weeks by turning them into stations where experimental crops can be grown, the soil tested and the neighborhood meet to discuss it; "or, if not that, certainly the entire grounds could contribute to the public good if they were carefully laid out with trees and shrubs and kept open as exhibition parks. All of them could in this way become test grounds and recreation grounds. They should be tied up to the idea of public betterment."

Professor Bailey finds that "the greatest fundamental need in the country life of this state is a thorough-going survey in de-

tail of our agricultural resources and conditions as a basis on which to build a scientifically and economically sound country life." He points out that while the expense of such a survey is great, it is not greater than is undertaken by a private business. Rural welfare needs as much care and attention as city welfare, and rural progress must come democratically from each locality, for "enterprises that originate at home have vitality."

* * *

For twenty years the *Jewish Quarterly Review* of London has been in undisputed possession of the first place among the Jewish publications of the world, and it therefore came as somewhat of a shock to Judaism when it was announced some months ago that its publication was to be discontinued. Later news that this decision has been reversed and that the headquarters of the *Review* will be transferred to this country, will be received with satisfaction. Cyrus Adler, president of Dropsie College, Philadelphia, will be editor. The transfer has been the subject of negotiations between the trustees of Dropsie College and Sir Claude Montefiore and Prof. Israel Abrahams of London for about a year, and at a meeting held in June of last year Dr. Adler was authorized by the trustees to arrange for the legal transfer of the *Review* to Dropsie College.

This has now been accomplished and "it is reasonably settled," according to Dr. Adler, "that the *Review* will be published in this country as I have the legal transfer from the English publishers of the quarterly and I am to report to the Board of Trustees of the college with a view to arranging for its publication in Philadelphia."

* * *

The offer of Duke Pompeo Litta of Lombardy to open his large tract of land in Florida to settlers from the Italian earthquake district may give a real clue to the immigration problem. The People's Institute *Bulletin*, New York, says that of 450,000 Italians in New York, only 15,000 have become voters. There is no book, in Italian, to teach them civics or the principles of citizenship. "Students of conditions generally agree that the Italian problem in America, with all its dark sides, is rooted in the crowded, overworked, under-fed, unnatural conditions of these hundreds of thousands of peasants penned up in the cities. The solution lies in distribution. Plant the Italians on the soil, as they have been planted for thousands of years in the old country, and restore them to natural conditions."

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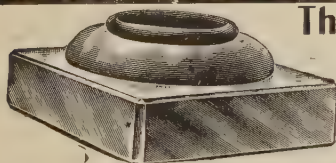
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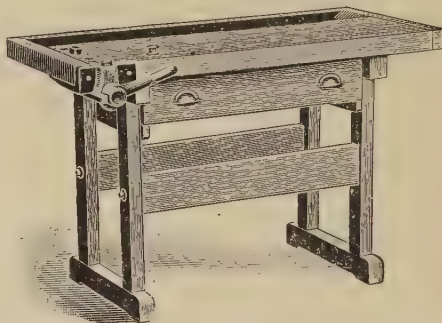
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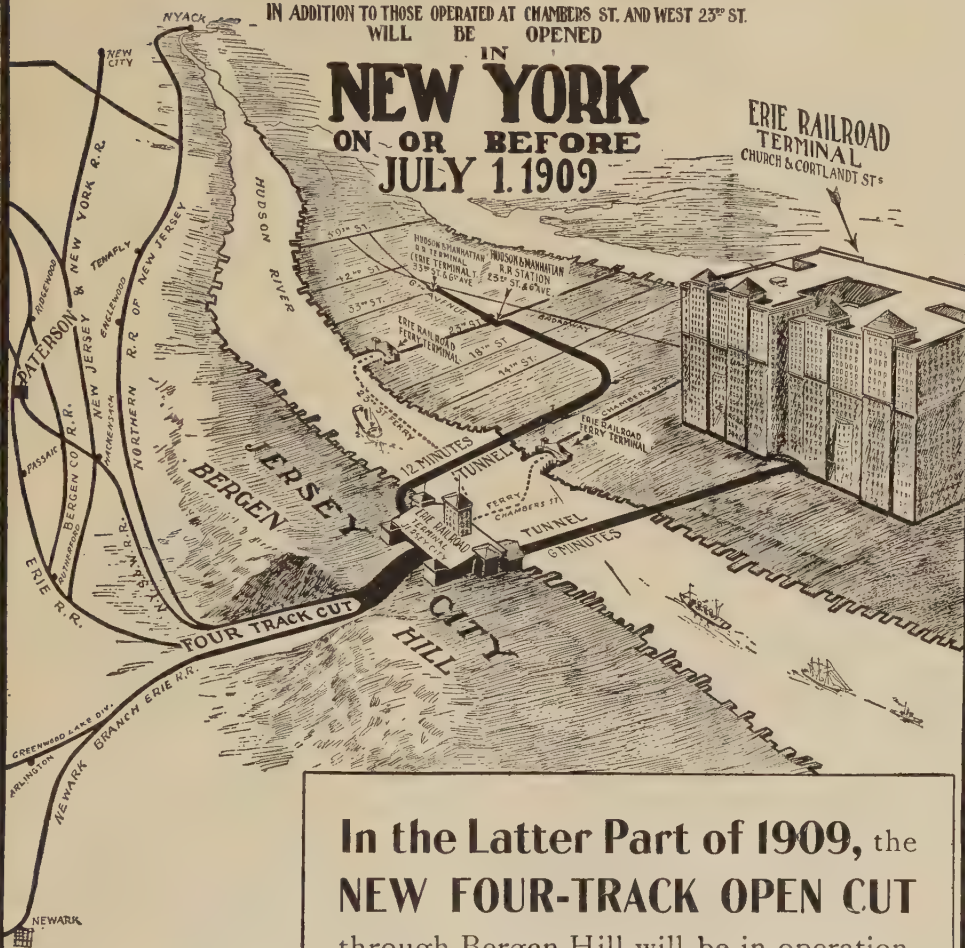
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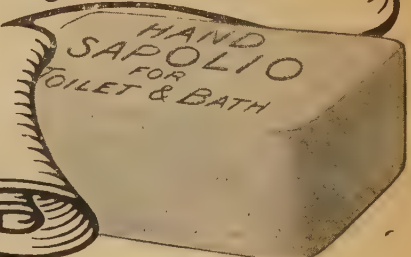
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE COST OF SOCIAL IMPROVEMENTS

In a recent number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, Edgar J. Levey quotes from an article by the present writer in the *Atlantic Monthly* on the New View of Charity as an illustration of the extent to which modern philanthropy is tending to merge into "municipal socialism." Mr. Levey thinks that the increase of expenditures, especially of expenditures for the "philanthropic improvement of social conditions," is bringing us face to face with the problem which "seems destined to become of supreme importance in the future history of New York and other cities." He does not oppose such expenditures when they are made from surplus wealth, and when the community is able and willing to bear the expense; but he warns us that we are overestimating that willingness and ability, that we must curb our impatience lest disaster befall, that these adverse social conditions cannot be changed as we desire without bankruptcy.

The challenge which Mr. Levey offers, the advocates of the new view of charity must clearly accept. We must take issue squarely with the conception which he presents of municipal expenditures for the improvement of adverse social conditions. His idea of such expenditures is that they are unprofitable, or what the economists used to call unproductive, expenditures, like the clergyman's salary, and essentially unjust in that the taxation which provides for them involves taking money from the pockets of one class, whether willing or unwilling, and giving it to others who have not earned it, however much their needs and misfortunes may appeal to our sympathy.

There is another view, even of municipal finance. Expenditures legitimately directed towards the removal of the causes of distress and crime, the removal of adverse social conditions, are not uneconomic, unproductive. They do not represent the mere indulgence of altruistic sentiment. They are investments. They correspond not to the spending of income but to the use of capital. They mean the exercise of sound judgment in choosing the lesser of evils, the greater of benefits, not the luxurious enjoyment of surplus dividends.

The penal system, for example, is probably costing us more than it need cost to be genuinely reformatory and an adequate means of social defense, but whether expenditures to maintain it should be a little more or a little less, or whether they should take a different direction, is just such a question as a business man would consider, not in spending his surplus income—which he might leave to his wife, or anybody—but in the actual management of his business. No increase which the most radical prison reformer would be likely to urge in the interests of humanity would compare in amount with the direct financial losses occasioned by the operations of professional criminals.

The educational system is costing immense sums, but they should be increased until we catch up with our educational problem, and we should expect that in the long run those initial investments would be justified. If you object that there is no such definite test as in a business investment, that it is all guess work whether money spent for reformatories and for education is invested wisely, whether the community is better off for such expenditures, we reply that this is precisely because you have not taken these humanitarian expenditures seriously; because you look upon them as from surplus, instead of from capital, as compara-

tively indifferent matters, so long as you have the money. We are face to face with the problem which is to become of supreme importance, but for a different reason from that which Mr. Levey has in mind. Our danger is not in destroying prosperity through excessive taxation, but in not bringing to bear upon the improvement of social conditions that trained judgment, that sanity and common sense, that willingness to spend money at the places where it is needed, and to refrain from spending where it is unproductive in the social sense, all of which we have developed to such an extraordinary degree in our industrialism to whose "wonderful achievements" Mr. Levey pays tribute.

The expenditures which are urged for the prevention of tuberculosis and for the more suitable care of consumptives are justified on the ground that they will ultimately lessen the demands on public and private charity; that they will increase efficiency, that they will promote prosperity, develop, if you please, tax paying capacity, promote social welfare. This is the typical expenditure for social improvement. It is essentially fallacious to look upon such expenditures as indulgences to be allowed rather sparingly to such communities as are rich enough to afford them. They are literally a husbanding of resources, a safeguard against later unprofitable but compulsory expenditure, a repair in the social organism which like the repair of a leaky roof may avert disaster.

No community is so poor that it can afford to permit typhoid for lack of a filter, or inefficient children for lack of good schools, or criminals for lack of playgrounds, or wayward girls for lack of protection, or exploited childhood for lack of a factory inspector, or industrial accidents for lack of a compensation law or an insurance system. These things, we repeat, are not luxuries. Those who insist upon them are not afflicted with municipal megalomania, and if they are municipal socialists so much the worse for the brand of individualism which makes a present of the certain future to its antagonists. Economic prosperity is essential and we would be the last to argue in favor of reckless waste of resources. Sanity in expenditures is as necessary in social betterment as in private business. For these reasons we urge the sanity, the reasonableness, of removing the causes of misery, that we may not have to pay for its consequences. We may send children to school, keep them out of factories, provide them with playgrounds, operate for their adenoids, and fit them for useful trades and occupations, or we may keep our hospitals and courts and prisons and charities going at their maximum capacity. Now we are right or wrong in the position that these are alternatives. If we are right these expenditures and enactments designed to change the adverse conditions are serious policies, not indulgences to be allowed half good naturedly and half contemptuously if there happens to be plenty of spare money about, not required for other purposes. Of course the money must be available or it cannot be spent, but if the advocates of better social conditions, of education and health and room and leisure and recreation and reasonable standards, are in earnest; if they make it clear that the irreducible minimum of these things which they seek, and which they seek not alone through municipal expenditure but in larger part through voluntary co-operation and individual initiative, represents investment and not luxury, they will, we think, escape the reproach of youthful extravagance, and of having neglected finance for the more alluring but less firmly grounded social science.

There is no more firmly grounded program than that of social work. Its objects are clearly formulated. Its methods are becoming crystallized and understood. Its natural allies are the financiers and the sanitarians and the engineers and the captains of industry. Efficiency is its watchword, prosperity is its half-way station, justice is its foundation.

THE COMMON WELFARE

VOTING DOWN TUBERCULOSIS

Chicago is tackling tuberculosis in a new way. For the first time in this connection, so far as we know, the referendum vote is being used. As we go to press the voters of Chicago are saying "yes" or "no" on their ballots to the proposition "to levy a tax for a public tuberculosis sanatorium."

Under the Glackin law, passed at the last session of the Illinois Legislature, and recently amended to obviate certain objections, the way is open for any city or village in the state to secure a municipal sanatorium. If one hundred voters sign a petition and file it with the city council, a referendum vote must be held at the next election, on the question whether or not a permanent special tax not to exceed one mill, shall be levied for a tuberculosis sanatorium to be conducted by the city or village. A majority of votes cast upon the proposition is required. If carried, the rate of the levy is to be determined by the city council in advance each year. The rate is thus flexible and can be varied to meet yearly needs. The management of the sanatorium is to be vested in three directors to be appointed by the mayor, one of whom must be from the Department of Health and the other two chosen at large. The law permits the establishment of the sanatorium outside the city limits. It also permits the admission of non-residents and the charging of a weekly rate for board if desirable.

To bring out a large vote—which will influence the city council to levy the full one mill tax, amounting to nearly \$500,000—a vigorous campaign is being waged. Under the leadership of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and the commissioner of health, organizations and groups of people all over the city are

enlisted. Posters, hand bills and leaflets are in all parts of the city. Newspapers are giving large space. Most significant, however, is the co-operation of political workers. Not only are the candidates for alderman and the other offices urging the referendum "yes" in their campaign meetings; they are instructing their ward leaders and precinct captains to "plug" hard for a big favorable vote.

BOARD OF INEBRIETY PROPOSED FOR NEW YORK

The experience of England and of a number of states has been drawn upon for the bill recently introduced in the New York Legislature to provide a comprehensive plan of treatment for drunkenness in New York city. It is based specifically on studies of the methods elsewhere used and of the conditions now existing in New York made by the standing committee on hospitals of the State Charities Aid Association.

The plan proposes a city board of inebriety composed of five members and the treatment makes the first offender its chief concern, discovering him by means of a central bureau of records, and releasing him after investigation, without submitting him to the disgrace of going to court or to demoralizing association with old "rounders." A second arrest within twelve months may be punished by release on probation with or without a fine payable in instalments, or commitment to the board of inebriety for an indeterminate sentence not exceeding three years.

There are to be a hospital and an industrial colony, under medical direction, with provision for voluntary commitment or commitment upon request of relatives or friends without appearance in court. Field officers are to investigate all cases of drunkenness and have charge

of men released on probation or parole. Patients who are refractory may be removed to the workhouse for not less than one year on application of the board of inebriety, and "rounders" now in public hospitals may be turned over to this board to receive treatment in its hospital or colony as the case demands.

The bill is intended to provide scientific treatment for inebriates, classifying them according to whether they are first offenders, occasional offenders, helpable or confirmed drunkards. Most of its provisions have been tried elsewhere, but never in so comprehensive a combination. Release of first offenders has been in operation in Massachusetts since 1905. In Boston it has reduced by more than one-third the number of cases before the courts. To first offenders it applies probationary oversight which tends to keep them from public institutions. The provision of a fine to be paid to the probation officer in instalments is a direct stimulus to secure work, and makes it possible for the person to pay his own fine rather than to have it paid by friends or relatives. The proposed central bureau of records would keep on file the information gathered by probation officers. The graded series of remedies would remove the "rounder" from the various institutions in which he is at present found, and commit him to the hospital and industrial colony for from one to three years.

The commitment of habitual drunkards to an institution for care and treatment upon their own application or upon that of friends or relatives, much as an insane person is committed to a hospital, is at present practised in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska and Pennsylvania.

England is thoroughly pledged to the policy of segregation of inebriates in separate institutions. The habitual drunkards act passed in 1879 provided for licensing private retreats to which they could be committed upon their own application. There are at present twenty-two such institutions. The inebriates act of 1898 provided for the establishment and maintenance, by local communities at public expense or by philanthropic bodies,

of inebriate reformatories to which can be committed persons who come repeatedly before the courts for drunkenness and for crimes in which drunkenness is a contributing cause. There are at present eleven such reformatories in England where in addition there have been established two state reformatories, designed to take the more refractory cases from the private retreats and local reformatories. A select committee appointed by Parliament in 1908 to investigate the operation of the various acts has recommended the extension of institutional facilities and the commitment of habitual drunkards upon application by their friends or relatives.

In this country, Massachusetts, Iowa and Minnesota are the only states which have separate public institutions for the treatment of inebriety. An appreciation of the necessity for such institutions is spreading rapidly among other states, particularly in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Connecticut, Nebraska and Tennessee. The need for them in New York city is imperative.

The courts are choked with thousands of cases that are immediately discharged. In Manhattan and the Bronx sixty per cent of all persons arrested for intoxication are thus discharged. About eighty per cent of those held by the courts are fined amounts ranging from one cent to ten dollars. Less than five per cent pay fines of more than three dollars. The persons fined either pay their fines in court or serve time in the district prison and workhouse—one day for each dollar of the fine. The remaining cases, or about twenty per cent, are committed directly to the workhouse. Habitual drunkards who manage to escape arrest are a constant burden to their families who are thus thrown upon the relief of charitable organizations. At present there is no provision in New York state for dealing with such a person, no institution to which he can be committed and no law authorizing his commitment.

It has been demonstrated after years of experience in this country and abroad that petty fines and short sentences do not reform the habitual drunkard or protect society. The inevitable product of

this method is the "rounder" who clogs the police stations, the courts, the city prisons and workhouses, the general municipal hospitals, and the insane hospitals.

WHEN A SHED IS NOT A SHED

The hearing at Albany last Tuesday must have solved for New York legislators the popular puzzle, When is a shed not a shed? The answer is, When it is a canning factory.

The state of New York has regulated the hours during which women and children may work in factories. It has never legislated as to sheds. A ruling by a former attorney general held that factory laws do not apply to sheds. The architectural question involved—whether a given building were a factory or a shed—was so technical that it was left to the owners, apparently on the ground that it is a question of intention rather than of result. The owners promptly decided that they had designed sheds and sheds they were regardless of construction. One canner even went so far as to raise a sign, "Shed," over a second floor room in which women and children worked in a cannery. From such practices grew the puzzle.

The hearing not only compared sheds in theory and practice, but answered further claims of the cannerymen that children are not employed in their industry and that even if they were it is a healthful "agricultural" pursuit, especially good for keeping children out of mischief during vacation. The legal and administrative features were presented in an advance chapter, *Employment of Children in Sheds in the Canning Industry*, from the forthcoming report of the State Department of Labor. A booklet printed for the occasion by the Consumers' League of the City of New York and the New York Child Labor Committee gave in brief the results of an investigation made into the work of women and children in the broad belt of fruit-growing counties, and in others nearby dotted by canneries following the fertile valleys where corn, peas, beans and tomatoes grow.

The picture drawn from the investigators' reports is of children of all ages, some mere babies of four, going out from Buffalo and other neighboring cities to the canneries when the fruit crop is ripe and staying "until after tomatoes"; of work days beginning at seven in the morning and lasting until nine and ten at night, with a few moments snatched from work for eating; of whole Polish and Italian families straining to earn the utmost at piece rates while crops last, the very youngest in baby carriages beside their mothers, those a little older "snipping" beans or waiting on the adult workers, carrying heavy crates to the weighers, saving steps and time and swelling the day's output; of women too busy to prepare meals and of children munching hunks of bread for lunch; of spirited lads playing truant to run upon the fields, but of girls and the more docile boys sticking steadily to their tasks under the watchful eye of parents and shaken awake to work wearily on when they have dozed over evening stents; of crowded, dirty sleeping shacks; of unguarded machinery; of some work at which women and children must stand all day.

The picture has the sense of hurry and driving haste of a city factory—the exact antithesis of healthful "agricultural" work for growing boys and girls. The testimony of teachers in both public and private schools shows that the Polish and Italian children cannot be kept in school after the canning season opens or lured or forced back before it closes. Some are away twenty weeks out of a school year of thirty-six, going for the earliest spring fruits, staying on through all the vegetables and finishing with apples as late as December 1. The factory inspectors and truancy officers are watched for and the children hidden. In most factories the children's names do not appear on payrolls, their work being credited at piece rates to that of their parents.

The bill (Assembly Bill No. 1602) introduced by Mr. Voss, aims to take the canneries out of the exempt class in regard to child labor—an exemption not intended by the original act. It would prohibit employment of children under

fourteen, limit their working hours to eight in one day and stop night work.

The booklet issued for the hearing is convincing in its statements which are well supported by photographs of children at work. It is largely made up of leaves from the investigator's diary of which the following is a fair sample:

I started to work at 7 A. M. and was put on piece work in the shed. Sixty women and thirty children were here all stringing beans. They were sitting on boxes; forty-five of the sixty were Italians and they had all their children with them. One woman, a Mrs. T——, had two girls seven and nine years old, with her. She began work at 5 A. M. and worked to-night till 9.30. The two little girls worked the same length of time. They complained of being tired when their mother had gone for beans, and said their limbs ached. They did not leave for meals but ate bread, etc., in the shed.

The canning industry is strung pretty well across the whole country, and all up and down the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. The situation in the New York law and the conditions found are significant for many states.

PENNSYLVANIA PROGRESS AGAINST CHILD LABOR

Four years of agitation against the evils of child labor in Pennsylvania have had their effect. The republican organization has decreed that an adequate child labor law shall pass, the governor mentioned the subject in his message and the bills now before the Legislature are organization measures.

In their present form, for which the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association is to a degree responsible, the bills compare favorably with the laws of more advanced states. Children may not be employed under fourteen years of age at any time of year. Certificates showing them to be fourteen and able to read and write English intelligently are to be issued by school authorities only, instead of by magistrates, notaries public and justices as at present and the child's age must be proved by records such as birth and baptismal certificates. At present the unsupported affidavit of parents proves the child's age. Work under eighteen is forbidden in certain extra-dangerous occupations such as blast fur-

naces and tanneries, and under the age of sixteen in certain other occupations, such as paint or tobacco manufacture, unless the chief factory inspector certifies that the danger has been removed.

Night work after 9 o'clock is prohibited, without the exception in favor of the glass industry which has disgraced Pennsylvania for four years, and without an exception for department stores prior to Christmas. Instead of the present twelve-hour day and sixty-hour week, a ten-hour day and fifty-eight-hour week are established. The "glass exception" and "Christmas exception" were stricken out by the committee on manufactures after a vigorous protest from the Child Labor Association.

The bill relating to factories, stores, etc., has passed the House and its ultimate passage seems assured. Less interest appears to be taken in the other bill which affects thousands of breaker boys. There is serious danger that this bill will not reach a vote in the two Houses before adjournment on April 15 unless the leaders use their influence to advance it on the overclogged calendars. Such a result would be a hard blow to friends of children, for nowhere in Pennsylvania is child labor more prevalent and harmful than in the hard coal region. Failure to remedy conditions now means a continuance of present conditions for two years, as the Pennsylvania Legislature sits biennially.

TO CHANGE TENEMENT LAW

An amendment to the New York Tenement House law has been prepared as a result of conferences between the Tenement House Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, the Tenement House Department and tenement house owners.

The bill deals chiefly with fire-escapes on existing houses, basement rooms and interior rooms throughout the building. In addition to the substantive changes that have been made, verbal changes in the same sections are proposed in order to clarify the act. The main substantive changes are as follows:

The present section with regard to fire escapes on new tenements contains a great mass of minute detail extending over many pages of the act, most of which addresses itself to considerations of having fire-escapes built strong enough. The proposed amendment leaves in the law only the essential conditions, namely, where the balconies shall be located, their minimum width, the fact that they shall be connected by stairs, the maximum angle of such stairs, the provision of drop ladders from the lowest balcony, or goose-neck ladders to the top balcony, etc., leaving all the minute details to be embodied in regulations to be adopted by the Tenement House Department. Another substantive change is to permit fire-escape balconies to open from a private hall as well as from a room in each apartment. A new provision is inserted requiring that access to fire-escapes shall not be obstructed. Provision is made for stone fire-escapes as well as iron.

Fire-escapes now existing, located in outer courts but not distant more than thirty feet from the outer end of the court, are permitted to remain provided the court is not less than five feet in width. The present law does not permit such fire-escapes if they are located in a court forty or fifty feet in length, even though the fire-escape balcony is only ten feet away from the outer end of the court. Also, if the court is less than six feet wide, the balconies are unlawful. This provision is now changed to five feet, as there are many balconies in such courts that are entirely safe and should be allowed to remain. Party-wall balconies (that is, connecting the window of one building with the window of another and without any ladders) now existing in courts which are not more than fifteen feet in depth and not less than five feet in width, are permitted to remain without change. At the present time no such balconies in any court are allowed even though the court might be only five feet deep and ten feet wide. This is a great injustice and was not contemplated.

The present law prohibits the location of a scuttle in a closet. If the door to the closet is removed so that people can

get at the scuttle quickly, or is only fastened with a bolt or hook, it is a better condition than having the scuttle in the open hall in many cases. It is proposed to amend the law so as to permit this in existing houses.

Great trouble and unnecessary expense have been caused owners by the detailed requirements of the present law with regard to the size of skylights. Nearly every conceivable variation of condition is found in existing houses. All that was sought by the original section was to ensure a maximum of light and ventilation so far as practicable in existing halls. It is now proposed to require this and to leave the method to the Tenement House Department.

The present law with regard to interior rooms has given great trouble.

It is proposed to make the following substantive changes: Lowering the minimum size of open air shafts on which rooms open in existing houses from twenty-five to twenty square feet; providing that where new windows are installed they shall be pulley-hung sash and the same size as in the present law. There is also a new proviso that they shall be in line with windows in outer rooms.

Where there are existing windows less in size than fifteen square feet, or large glass sliding doors or large alcove openings in flats that run through from street to yard, it is proposed to give the department power to permit the occupancy of such rooms when satisfied that no material improvement in the light and ventilation can be made that would warrant the providing of new windows, but this power is only to be accorded under certain specified conditions.

The present law sets forth certain conditions under which basement and cellar rooms may be occupied. The main ones are (1) that the rooms shall be seven feet high, (2) that the ceiling shall be two feet above adjoining ground, (3) that every room shall open on the street or yard, (4) that the rooms shall have sufficient light, shall be well drained and dry and be fit for human habitation. It develops as a result of inspection, that there are many basements which are not seven

feet in height and yet are entirely proper for occupation. Under the present law they cannot be occupied no matter what the other condition. It also develops that there are many rooms where the ceiling is not two feet above the curb and yet the rooms are proper for occupation.

It is proposed, therefore, to provide that where existing rooms do not comply with certain of the provisions of the present law, that the department may issue a special permit for the occupancy of such rooms provided it is entirely clear that they are fit for human habitation, have sufficient light and are well drained and dry; and provided, further, that the owner makes such improvement or alterations in the rooms as the Tenement House Department may require.

A verbal change will make clear the intent of the law with regard to cellar floors. At the present time the department interprets the provision that the cellar floor shall be watertight to mean that every cellar floor shall be concreted with four inches of concrete, irrespective of whether conditions of dampness exist or not. Many owners are now compelled to rip up good wooden floors that are perfectly dry, and put a concrete floor underneath. This involves great trouble and expense and is entirely unnecessary in many cases. It is proposed to limit such requirements only to where there is dampness. Similarly, the law now requires the cellar ceiling to be plastered. It was not intended to make this requirement apply to cases where the ceiling is well sheathed with matched boards or covered with a metal ceiling, and the bill exempts such conditions from the application of the section.

CIVIC FEDERATION ON BLACK AND WHITE LISTS

At a meeting of the New York council of the National Civic Federation on April 2 to consider the boycott, the white list, the black list and the like, the appointed speakers said much about what the law is and little about what the law should be. Prof. John B. Clark stated that the support of trade union action whenever it did no injury to the community required

equally approval of the primary boycott and disapproval of the secondary boycott. If the bulk of the workers were organized and the unions should use the secondary boycott very widely, two sorts of stores would be established, one for union goods, which would readily obey an order to boycott a manufacturer, and another for general customers which would ignore such orders. To approve the secondary boycott, he said, would be to sanction commercial lynching.

The lawyers, led by Professor Stimson of Harvard University, argued that the law often forbids a combination to perform acts which individuals may properly perform. In 1221, the rulers of Shrewsbury, who proclaimed that no citizen should sell goods to the neighboring abbey, were convicted on the ground that "the free customs and liberties" guaranteed by Magna Charta must be preserved. This case was similar in all essentials to the Bucks Stove case. "I may cease to trade with my butcher. I may advise my friends to do the same. But if I send circulars to strangers advising them not to trade with the butcher I commit an illegal act because my motive is to damage the butcher." Similarly a white list, issued to confer benefits, is legal; a black list, issued to do injury, is illegal. A combination is a new personality or entity, distinct from the individuals composing it, with purposes different from the personal purposes, and the law condemns all combinations which have the motive direct to injure somebody even though indirectly they may benefit somebody else.

The primary boycott, declared Walter Drew, is so clearly legal that it is never brought before the court, and the judicial definitions of boycotting apply only to the secondary boycott. Only passing reference was made to the fact that an injunction order destroys the opportunity to submit the question of motive to a jury, though, as Professor Stimson said, this is the jury's prime function.

Samuel Gompers complained that the lawyers were dumb about the cruelty and tyranny of the black list and the lock-out. He said that even in war the freedom of the press can be curtailed only

temporarily but, by judge's orders today, it is curtailed permanently. What was forbidden to protect the nation was allowed to protect a stove. Complaints of the one-sidedness of the discussion elicited a promise of a further consideration of the topics.

ALLEN T. BURNS'S NEW APPOINTMENT

Pittsburgh has gone west for a young man and found him in Allen T. Burns of Chicago. Mr. Burns, who is associate director of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, becomes secretary of the new Pittsburgh Civic Improvement Commission which, with his appointment, announces the completion of its organization and preparation for active work.

This is a stirring sequence to the three issues of this magazine presenting the gist of the Pittsburgh Survey. These issues have been distributed by the Chamber of Commerce throughout its large membership, and the commission enters upon its work with a remarkable body of information before the public as to the conditions with which it proposes to deal. Chairman English has about him a group of men, some of whom hitherto have taken no part in public matters, but all of whom have demonstrated energy and distinction in their own fields of work, and all of whom are pledged to enter upon this enterprise of city statesmanship with the same spirit and concentration as have characterized them in their private capacities. There is an opportunity of a lifetime. Back of each member is a sub-committee which, under Mr. Burns's chairmanship, will address itself to some one phase of the civic and industrial situation, and back of the commission as a whole is planned a series of word groups which will give local and city application to the movements it initiates.

Mr. Burns brings to his executive work both experience and enthusiasm in many of the projects which the commission will take up. A Massachusetts man by birth, and a New Yorker for a season, several years ago, his work has been cast in the Middle-West, and it is from there



ALLEN T. BURNS.

that he hails, in temperament and outlook. He is a graduate of the University of Chicago (1897), and took four years' graduate courses in theology and sociology. For three years he was in industrial work for the Y. M. C. A. in Chicago and New York, a resident for some of the time in workingmen's boarding houses, and one of the leading spirits in broadening out the activities of the association from what has been called its "white-collar" limitations. It is significant that one of the collaborators in the Pittsburgh Survey was Peter Roberts, Y. M. C. A. secretary for immigration, whose time and co-operation were contributed to the Survey by the industrial department of the International Committee and whose field work and report have led to active steps among the associations in the mill towns for service to the immigrant wage earner of the Pittsburgh District. For the past two years and a half, as a resident at Chicago Commons and a worker in the School of Civics and Philanthropy, Mr. Burns has been actively

associated with Graham Taylor in both neighborhood work and in the theory and practice of many of the subjects which will come before the commission. He has carried on extended investigations for the Chicago Small Parks Commission, has been a member of the advisory district council of the Chicago Associated Charities, secretary of the Society for the Promotion of Social Service in the Y. M. C. A.; a member of the advisory committee of the Chicago Municipal Voters League and a member of the Tenement House Commission of the Chicago City Council.

At this time of definitely entering upon its program of work, it may be well to recapitulate the subjects to be taken up by the committees of the Pittsburgh commission. Nothing better illustrates the broad scope and fundamental character of the work. They are public hygiene and sanitation, lower courts of justice, housing, design and construction, city planning, municipal art, neighborhood improvement, charitable institutions, municipal publication, legislation, rapid transit, municipal accounting and finance, industrial accidents and overstrain and education. Each committee will have access to such material in the Survey as is applicable to its particular field and will secure experts to plan with the committee a program for practical improvement.

The co-operative ward groups are devised along original lines. For the purpose of creating effective public opinion these groups are to be kept familiar with the findings and plans of the commission by means of meetings and reports, and are to become centers for spreading civic intelligence. They are thus to be enlisted and to enlist others for the success of its work. They should become a true democratic force behind the comprehensive policy for municipal progress put forward by the commission.

THE PITTSBURGH CIVIC COMMISSION

While the Pittsburgh Civic Improvement Commission comes as a natural sequence to the work of the Survey, it is

distinctly a local undertaking. Its membership has been representative of those citizens who have been disposed to listen to the hard sayings of the Survey, not in the spirit of picking flaws in their presentation, but in the spirit of welcoming such a social inventory as would help in making the community in truth the "Greater Pittsburgh" which the rising citizenship of the steel center sees ahead. Pittsburgh is used to fighting. Many of the things which the Survey's reports disclosed are strongly intrenched, and rancorous opposition in many quarters will counter the enthusiasm the commission's work will provoke in others. Its strength will lie in the sanity and practical character of its proposals. Its standing in the community is already that of an institution come to stay. Announced at the national civic conventions in Pittsburgh in November, its creation is one of the large achievements for which Mayor George W. Guthrie's administration will be remembered; and the pre-election speeches of Mayor-elect Magee, were an earnest of his intention to co-operate. In planning and initiating the commission Mayor Guthrie and Mr. English have had the co-operation of Robert A. Woods of South End House, Boston, a collaborator in the work of the Survey and one of the foremost civic leaders of New England. Mr. Woods was born in Pittsburgh, and the time and effort which he contributed on the ground to the Pittsburgh undertaking, out of the heart of a heavy year's work, will stand as a rare illustration of patriotism for one's native city.

WEST AND EAST EXCHANGE WORKERS

As the training school for specialists in social work, the East is more and more depending upon the West, as hitherto the West has depended upon the East. This is due both to the increased facilities and efficiency of academic training in social economics afforded by western universities, and to the varied experience and discipline acquired in the rapidly developing social work of the West. The selection of Allen T. Burns of Chicago as secretary of the

Pittsburgh Civic Improvement Commission, reported in another column, is a marked recognition of these combined advantages.

The selection of Hastings H. Hart to direct the supervisory and research work for children on the staff of the Russell Sage Foundation is another endorsement of the same sources of supply. He was one of the first men in the West to bring to humanitarian service the college training and academic exactions which have raised this branch of public service to a recognized professional status. His writing for the press and his teaching in the schools of philanthropy prove that he has kept himself square to classroom requirements. That this instinct of the scholar and teacher has never made him doctrinaire is demonstrated by his success in the administration of the Minnesota State Board of Charities, the secretaryship of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the superintendency of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. His achievements as a practical publicist are recorded in the social legislation of Minnesota, in the draft of the Illinois Juvenile Court law which has become the type for other states, in the Oklahoma laws for the care of the insane



HASTINGS H. HART.

and in legal provisions for dependent and delinquent children in that state and in New Hampshire. Perhaps his most conspicuous service was as chairman of the committee on resolutions of the conference recently held at the White House to promote the national work for children.

Appreciation of these and many other public services rendered by Dr. Hart was heartily expressed by many speakers from different points of view at the farewell testimonial tendered by the Chicago Social Service Club. He goes to the East bearing the sincerest tokens of the fraternal pride and professional appreciation with which his fellow workers in the West regard him.

In the appointment of Henry W. Thurston as successor to Dr. Hart as superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, East and West exchange men. Going west with the birthright of Vermont and the diploma of Dartmouth College, Mr. Thurston has for twenty-three years rendered efficient service as high school principal and as the head of the department of sociology in the Chicago Normal School. While in the latter position he wrote a text book



HENRY W. THURSTON.

for secondary schools entitled Economics and Industrial History, which has been widely used. His Municipal Studies of Chicago and Outline for Teaching History and Civics have proved useful and suggestive, as have his contributions to educational periodicals and to the pages of this magazine.

His greatest public service has been rendered the past four years as chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court at Chicago. High standing was given to that office from the start by the fact that such a man with such training registered the highest grade in the competitive civil service examination for the appointment. Everyone connected with the court, all interested in its success and each child coming under its care attest the value of his ideals and devotion in establishing a high standard for juvenile probation service. His share in the results attained by the investigation of juvenile delinquency in Chicago, conducted by the research department of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy for the Russell Sage Foundation, will be awaited with interest, dealing as it does with the probation system.

It is equally fortunate that one so well trained and experienced can succeed to the superintendency of the greatest child-helping agency of the West, and that he in turn can be succeeded as chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court by one so well fitted for the position as J. H. Witter, who shares Mr. Thurston's ideals and has helped so long to carry them out.

FRIENDS OF THE SURVEY

THE SURVEY is most fortunate in the number of its friends, and in the enthusiasm with which they have greeted it. To change one's name is, of course, not quite the same as to start new, from no name, on the christening day. We had the friends of eleven years to count on. But their very friendship was an obstacle to some who feared that under the new caption the characteristics they most liked might in some way be lost. To these, the first issue of THE SURVEY, published last week, was convincing. Its

contents and its appearance were familiar, the cherished tone and attitude were unchanged. To share with all what a few of us have been privileged to hear, some sentences from letters and newspaper clippings may not be uninteresting:

The new name is comprehensive and suggestive.—Robert Watchorn, commissioner of immigration, *New York*.

While any new name, especially one which supplants an older title, seems strange at first, I venture to say that in a few months THE SURVEY will seem entirely the fitting name for your most excellent publication in the minds of its friends.—Joseph McC. Bell, Secretary Voters' League, *Milwaukee*.

I think THE SURVEY a very appropriate title.—George A. Bellamy, Hiram House, *Cleveland*.

A clean-cut name.—Edward W. Frost, *Milwaukee*.

It is a distinct advance. I appreciate what you and your associates are doing to make the periodical thoroughly high grade in all that pertains to social advance and generally constructive philanthropy.—Myron Germain Jones, *New York*.

You are sincerely and heartily congratulated upon the change of name. Charities always gave a wrong idea and had to be apologized for.—Benjamin Nicoll, *New York*.

I am glad of the change of title, because I think it carries with it a recognition of the changing function of scientific charity as is evidenced by the development of thought both in the Charity Organization Society itself and in the journal.—Rev. Samuel H. Bishop, *New York*.

The former name of your magazine was inaccurate and awkward, but the new name impresses me as being highly satisfactory and I rejoice, therefore, that you have the courage and wisdom to adopt it. May I take this occasion, also, to state that your journal is to my mind not only the most valuable publication in its chosen field, but one of the most valuable publications now published in America. There is no magazine of any kind which comes to my desk which I read with such eagerness and such large returns in the form of both knowledge and inspiration.—Rev. John Haynes Holmes, *New York*.

There was something in the name of *Charities* and *The Commons* that greatly annoyed me, though I cannot explain why, whereas THE SURVEY is a big, broad title.—Edmond Kelly, *New York*.

A good change. The new name describes concisely the function of this unique and serviceable weekly journal. It is a publication of social conditions and of social endeavors. Numbered almost by the thousands, its correspondents include charity workers, settlement workers, prison officials, legislators and students of the general welfare. Adopting Ruskin's definition of wealth,

it is a journal of true political economy. Potential readers who may have been frightened off by the old title may venture now to embrace it under the new. Friends of the disinterested work which this magazine is doing will be glad to note the sensible change.—*Chicago Evening Post*.

There was probably never a journal more wisely conducted or judiciously edited with greater knowledge of its purposes and ideals. Beginning with a few pages to connect intelligently the work of a society, it now is making the country its field and reaching out to studies and conditions in other countries. It may yet take the old missionary motto "The field as the world."—*Springfield Republican*.

The Publication Committee has made a good move in changing the name to THE SURVEY. The old name was not only cumbersome, but misleading. It failed altogether to give indication of the broad scope of the contents of the magazine. . . . The new name has been criticised as meaningless. To be sure it is vague. However, the vigor that has marked the editorial policy of the magazine in recent years may be depended upon to give a very definite suggestion to the new name and to create for the magazine an interested constituency among intelligent readers of all classes.—*Boston Transcript*.

The magazine known as *Charities and The Commons* has done a wise thing in abandoning its cumbersome title and renaming itself THE SURVEY.—*Rochester Democrat Chronicle*.

The old name was misunderstood and proved a stumbling block in the way of increasing influence.—*Louisville Courier Journal*.

Counting a subscription list is like lengthening the skirts of a school girl—it grows while you are at work. A large clerical force might count it all between two mails, but none know better than our subscribers why we have not that kind of a clerical force.

We want to be strictly honest and

therefore this preamble to explain that "foreign, etc.," where it appears in the following diagrams means besides European and Australian, Canadian provincial, and a few miscellaneous domestic subscriptions not included on the map. The subscription census shown in the map was taken March 27, the day the last issue of *Charities and The Commons* was published. The previous one was taken six months before with the first issue of the last volume under the old title—October 1, 1908. During that time the total list of yearly subscribers increased from 9,135 to 10,902. The map on page 94 shows how each part of the country stands. The first table at the bottom of this page shows where the main gain has been made:

The Middle West has gained most, 791; although the East has made an actual gain of 717, it has fallen behind proportionately. The other table shows the five leading states and the changes which have occurred in each:

Six months ago Illinois was in third place, Massachusetts holding second by a hundred subscribers. By a spirited climb, Illinois has gained second place by two subscribers, and the two are neck and neck, while Minnesota has more than doubled its former record of 126 (now 279) and Michigan tripled from 109 to 336.

These are the biggest changes. Mississippi is at the bottom with nearly one hundredth of one per cent of our total list in the person of one subscriber. We are proud of her; she is all that perpetu-

Section.	October, 1908		March 27, 1909.	
	No. of Subs.	Proportion.	No. of Subs.	Proportion.
East	5,265	58 per cent.	5,982	55 per cent.
Middle West.....	2,355	26 " "	3,046	28 " "
South	577	6 " "	688	6 " "
West	646	7 " "	733	7 " "
Foreign, Etc.	292	3 " "	453	4 " "
Total	9,135		10,902	

	Oct. 1, 1908.		March 27, 1909.	
	No. of Subs.	Proportion.	No. of Subs.	Proportion.
New York	2,490	26 per cent.	2,746	25 per cent.
Massachusetts	967	11 " "	1,106	10 " "
Illinois	867	9 " "	1,108	11 " "
Pennsylvania	713	8 " "	853	8 " "
Ohio	677	7 " "	720	6 " "

ates our boast that we are represented in every state and territory in the Union—but we shall be glad to see her tribe increase. (She has three half rate blanks; her address will be sent to her neighbors on application accompanied by stamped and addressed envelope.)

The average circulation for all issues of volume XXI, which closed with the issue of March 27, was 13,336. For the magazine issues the average circulation was 16,750.

But we want more readers, and the help of all who read this. We want our audience increased in the West; we do

not want California to supply nearly one-third of it as she now does although we want California's record bigger. We want the South to enter into the competition, and we want the Middle West and the East to continue breaking records.

Our regular readers can help us if they will, all of them, with the half rate blanks we have sent. These are good for a full year's subscription at one dollar if used by new readers before May 1. If every subscriber secured one other, the business prospects and the educational reach of THE SURVEY would be doubled.

SUBSCRIBERS TO THE SURVEY, MARCH 27, 1909.



HOW OUR WOMEN WORKERS ARE PROVIDING FOR OLD AGE

MARY CAROLINE CRAWFORD

SECRETARY OF THE FORD HALL MEETINGS, BOSTON

It often seems as if Professor Osler's recommendation as to the disposition society should make of men workers who have begun to decline in years and vigor had already been applied to women. A recent walk through the main floors of the large department stores of Boston revealed scarcely half a dozen women whose hair had begun to turn gray! However, a closer investigation brought out the fact that the clerks of twenty-five years ago are not invariably set adrift. Instead they are relegated to the basement! In part this is a kindly act for down in the tinware region a woman dispenses only what is wanted, and so is free from the constant strain of urging upon a reluctant customer a species of belt-pin, say, for which there is no reciprocal desire. Moreover, down there, the color scheme does not so insistently demand bright and carefully pompadoured coiffures as on the ground floor front.

The question with which we are immediately concerned becomes even more disturbing, though, after a chat with one of these basement workers. For them the days of enforced retirement are drawing very near,—and, now, there is no longer the slightest possibility of marriage. With the younger girls, of course, this possibility is ever-present. No attractive woman clerk of thirty or a little more thinks that she will not soon marry. The inevitable inference of the "female preponderance in Massachusetts" has very likely never been called to her attention and if it were she would think that it did not apply to her. For every little while, a girl at a neighboring counter, who, she is sure, has nothing like her personal charms, is honorably wooed and happily wed by a commercial traveller who "sells" their store. So why think of providing for the future? Instead, she will draw out for a stunning

new hat at Easter the money she has been putting into the Stamp-Saving Society. She only bought the stamps, anyhow, "because the lady who had them to sell seemed a little discouraged and she wanted to cheer her up by her patronage!"

John Graham Brooks, in writing of welfare work, has quoted Ruskin to the effect that it is better for people themselves to discover what they want than to have other people tell them. The largest stamp-saving business done in any of the Boston shops bears this out. It is that of the George Frost Company, and it was inaugurated by one of the women in the place who, having heard through a working girls' club of what stamp-savings might do to solve the problem of proper old age provision, came down to the office to enquire about the matter and, purchasing some of the stamps herself, went back to urge them upon her fellow-employees. In a recent year \$2,340 was saved by the women in this one establishment. Again, at W. S. Butler and Company's store the work was introduced by one of the cashiers. Late figures show \$1,527.21 saved by the one hundred clerks and cash carriers there. The public station at the women's annex to the South End Settlement House showed \$4,448.32 deposited in one year mostly by adults and very largely by the women who work in the laundries and knitting factories of the neighborhood.

A good deal akin to the work of the stamp-savings society is that of the Society For Home Savings. Here, however, it is difficult to distinguish savings made by women workers from those of women who merely deposit money that has been earned by their husbands. In South Boston \$4,632.58 was deposited in a year through this medium by 310 persons of whom fully ninety per cent were

women. In the North End almost 245 women deposited \$3,964.94. Other sections reported varying amounts which averaged about \$400 for each district. Most of the people who save in this way have never saved in any way before; for them the society is an important link between utter improvidence and the self-respect which comes with the possession of a bank-book.

None of these philanthropic go-betweens is popular however with the sturdiest of our women workers. Mrs. Mary Kenney O'Sullivan, who may well stand as the woman representative of active trades-unionism in this country, took no pains to conceal her scorn of volunteer solicitors of savings. She said emphatically:

There is too much paternalism about it. It leaves no chance for the individual to develop. I would have a girl take out a bank-book by herself and make her own deposits. But that is not yet possible because wages are not what they should be. Let the women organize and raise the standard of wages; then they will be in a position to take proper care for the morrow. No woman ought to work for less than ten dollars a week. And those who now earn that can and do save if they work in factories. For the women who work in shops and dress as they have to there on that salary or less I have a good deal of pity but not much patience. They are apt to spend too much on furbelows. I don't believe in worrying; I myself never worry but I do force myself to remember my responsibilities and never to forget that I must not be extravagant.

Absolutely the only way for women to provide properly for old age is to earn enough when they're working to protect themselves later. This they have done in some places and they can do it in many more through unionism. The one woman's trade in Boston which is entirely unionized is that of the tobacco-strippers and they have all bettered their condition to the extent of three or four dollars a week by organization. The bookbinders who have organized have raised their wages three dollars a week already and the laundry workers have brought their wages up more than fifty per cent in some cases. There is no other way. Women must pull together if they would get from their work a wage upon which to live decently now and when they can work no longer. They must cease, too, to look upon their work as a makeshift. The idea of temporary employment is the bane of women today. Let women work as hard and as well as men, stick together as men do in rainy and in fair weather and they will be able to

care for themselves when old as well as men do.

I think Mrs. O'Sullivan overlooked, however, one comforting element which enters into a man's life-work and which women almost entirely lack. I mean the children upon whom the workingman spends his wage with the expectation that they will care for him when he can no longer care for himself. Frequently, to be sure, this confidence proves misplaced! Associated Charities workers are often forced in these days to doubt the mere existence of the thing we call filial love. None the less this idea will not and should not die. But how is it with the woman worker? The care of the aged mother is to her a privilege as well as a duty but such care is a losing game compared with that of the man who spends upon his children. Men have been known to adopt children in the thought that the young strength would bear the burden when the old strength had failed, but when a single woman goes into the business of adoption it is that she may pour out her love and her money upon some pretty golden-haired girl who has appealed to her hungry heart. The thought of adoption as an investment for the future has never once, I would be willing to assert, occurred to self-supporting women. No provision looking to old age seems to me more sensible, then, than that which women are making in demanding equal pay for equal work.

The expense of caring for dependent relatives is much more nearly equal than is generally supposed. At a recent meeting of the women teachers of a high school in New York one of the questions submitted was, "Is there anyone wholly or in part dependent upon you?" and of the forty-five women present only four answered no. Investigation developed the fact that the dependent persons were, in nearly every case, what has been called a losing investment, that is they were parents, younger brothers or sisters, or the children of deceased brothers and sisters. In other words they were people who, in the natural order of things, would not support her who had supported them.

The expense of education is as great for a woman teacher as for a man, yet in the elementary schools of Boston a man begins with a salary of \$1,500 which is gradually increased to \$2,460, while a woman, filling the same position and having the same responsibility, begins with a salary of only \$552 and can never receive more than \$1,212. In other words she begins with about one-third the salary of the man and attains, as a maximum, to a salary of less than half of what is paid to him. Upon comparing the salaries in positions open to both men and women, in our high schools we find that the maximum salary of a man is \$3,060 while the maximum of a woman is only \$1,386.

Of course there are weighty arguments on the other side of this "equal pay" demand. Economists tell us, and with truth, no doubt, that granting women all along the line the same salaries as men will have an almost inevitable tendency to lower the men's pay inasmuch as that is now based on the idea of family-support. Perhaps what is really needed, then, is the deepening in men of their sense of obligation to care for aged parents and worn-out sisters.

The mental attitude of women towards those who employ them has doubtless had a great deal to do with their acceptance of lower wages than those paid to men. Miss Edith Abbott has pointed out that when woman entered the industrial field she came into contact for the first time with a man emotionally indifferent to her, one who was neither her father, husband nor brother and who had no claim upon her except as a wage-payer. Yet, in spite of herself, she allowed the emotional to creep in; she was grateful for the wage and for the chance to work. To-day women have not outgrown that gratitude and there are plenty of employers who realize it. All that is finest in womanhood urges loyalty to the person who gave the first chance and hundreds of women stay on all their lives working at less wages than they are worth because they do not like to leave the employer who they know "depends" upon them. Still another fine quality in womanhood, modesty, mili-

tates against asking for an increase of wages as frequently and as persistently as men feel it their duty to ask. This would seem to be a fresh argument for organization wherever possible. A woman will ask for others what she would not ask for herself. But women still have much to learn about pulling together! Professor Mason has pointed out in his book, *Woman's Share In Primitive Culture*, that "even as beasts of burden women seldom worked in pairs." Only very slowly can the temperament and practice of centuries be changed.

Yet that a good deal may be done in this way of co-operation when the desire to enjoy quietness and decency in old age be the motive is shown by the success of the English Friendly Societies. Recent figures show 30,000 of these in England with 13,000,000 members enrolled and nearly £50,000,000 invested. A very large proportion of the members are women. Towards the end of his life, Arnold Toynbee was full of desire to have these Friendly Societies subsidized by the state. He saw that it is always difficult and frequently impossible for the ordinary woman wage earner to save out of her earnings a sum sufficient to provide even a most modest competence for her old age. Joseph Chamberlain, more recently, has advocated deferred annuities for this same reason, but Charles Booth thought the annuity plan would not meet the need of the class for whom it was designed, and urged a pension of five shillings a week for those over sixty-five. None of these things seems to fit American conditions, however, and I, for one, feel no call to advance them. What we need, I strongly feel, is greater desire on the part of our women workers to help themselves added to a more intelligent and more constant use of such methods of saving as are, and as soon will be, available.

There are excellent means of saving if only more women would use them. For the year ending June 9, 1905, 1,981 women owned shares in the Workingmen's Co-operative Bank of Boston, an institution which compels steady saving up to \$5,000. Naturally, this does not particularly appeal to people of very small sal-

aries but school teachers, stenographers, clerks and cashiers use it a good deal, depositing from one dollar to twenty-five dollars monthly. Nine dollars is the average investment here made by a woman.

Many women who desire to save find the compulsory method of the co-operative banks rather a nuisance, however, and these use the ordinary savings banks, almost all of which are accessible, well managed and some of which pay four per cent interest. Because of a law which requires that the savings bank commissioners be informed once in five years concerning the savings of women, I was able to get the Massachusetts figures on this matter for the years ending October 31, 1899, and October 31, 1904. During the first-mentioned year there were 653,699 deposits by women (both adult and minor) in the savings banks of the state. They aggregated \$42,452,055.65, which represented 46.61 per cent of the whole number and 47.15 per cent of the whole amount of savings bank deposits in this state. During the year ending October 31, 1904, there were 794,970 deposits by women (both adult and minor) which aggregated \$47,828,052.41; this represented 45.60 per cent of the whole number and 47.82 per cent of the whole amount of savings banks deposits that year in Massachusetts.

Therefore, women workers who desire to save can and do use the savings banks. They likewise buy life insurance. More than one-third of the entire population of Massachusetts carry "industrial insurance" policies for which they pay in premiums from twice to eight times as much as a person of larger means is obliged to pay for insurance.

The one thing into which the very poor do pour their earnings is insurance; the desire to escape a pauper's fate when dead seems much stronger than the desire to escape a pauper's fare while alive. This desire, then, is the thing upon which we must build. "To make the people more competent," Charles Locke has said, "we must appeal not to their weakness but to their strength, however elemental or undisciplined that strength may be." The people abhor with the deepest abhorrence the potter's field and

all that it stands for. To pay their \$61,000,000 of insurance (during the last fifteen years) they have gone without proper food and often without proper clothing. This is a strength, though an elemental one. Without it there would be 25,000 more pauper funerals each year in Massachusetts.

A concrete case of insurance abuse has recently come to my attention. Twenty years ago a young working girl took out industrial policies for \$250 apiece upon her mother, who was then sixty, and her father, who was then sixty-two. The old people are still in good health and the girl has already paid \$700 for which she can never get back more than \$500. It is sincerely to be hoped that some friend will be by to see that the insurance money, when it does come in shall not all go to the undertaker. The Boston agent of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company recently told me complacently that the average funeral among his clients costs \$150, "exactly the amount of the average policy!" The savings bank scheme recently introduced in Massachusetts for the purpose of selling insurance at cost will never work, he further assured me, because these poor people do not use the savings banks. "We made a canvass of that matter on purpose, and we found that the only money our people ever have to put in the bank is the little that may be left after they have paid the funeral expenses out of one of our policies. All that these people know about saving we have taught them." Very likely. Yet, since it is clear that insurance does not appeal to the masses, shall we not rejoice at the prospect of a kind of insurance which may be had at reasonable rates? Women with respectable salaries now quite generally use insurance, employing the endowment form because it protects those dependent upon the insurer while guaranteeing her a good return when she can no longer earn as much as in youth. The Equitable Life Assurance Society has a special department for women in its Boston office and I there learned some very interesting instances of women who carry endowment policies. Several nur-

ses have \$5,000 apiece, one manicurist carries something over that amount and quite a number of milliners, dressmakers and newspaper writers carry a little less. The average for the 2,500 women insured through this office is \$1,500. Heads of departments in the large stores carry \$1,000 usually and there are a dozen housemaids in Boston who have also made this form of investment. Nothing less than \$1,000 is written in this office.

The savings banks, however,—selling insurance in Massachusetts under what is generally known as the "Brandeis bill"—write no policy for more than \$500. 8,000 Massachusetts women expressed eagerness for the passage of the empowering act, two year ago, and many have already bought their insurance. How many cannot be stated because no separate data of women have been kept. The terms under which such insurance

can be bought are so interesting that I append herewith figures which show the monthly premium rates on five different kinds of policies for a woman at ages twenty, thirty, forty and fifty.

"The figures below show the most women will have to pay and the least they will get," explains Mr. Brandeis. "All the profits go to the policy holders either in reduced premium rates or increased benefits."

This opportunity to buy insurance at cost must be eagerly improved once women have come to understand it. For I have found that a rather larger number of women than at first seems to be the case are disposed to take care for the future. A good deal of the trouble heretofore has been the lack of cheap and easily procurable protection which should at the same time be absolutely safe.

Age next birthday.	Life Pol. for \$500 pd. up at age 75.	End. Pol. for \$500 maturing at age 65.	\$500 Ins. to age 65. \$200 Annuity commencing at age 65.	\$200 Annuity beginning at age 65, with return of premiums to estate in case of prior death.	\$200 Annuity beginning at age 60, with return of premiums to estate in case of prior death.
20	\$.86	\$.95	\$1.47	\$1.60	\$2.36
30	1.15	1.32	2.24	2.48	3.94
40	1.58	1.95	3.74	4.52	7.50
50	2.38	3.42	7.60	9.54	18.60

THE TREND OF THINGS

Investigations of many sorts which we in America have been making into our conditions of life and labor, the Pittsburgh Survey, Charles Booth's London—the census itself—seem small beside the task which a modest school in Tokio has recently completed with the publication of twelve volumes of about 1,000 pages each. It is called *A Comprehensive Book on the Economic Conditions in China*.

The Tokio school, Toa Dobun Shoin, with its counterpart in Shanghai, is maintained by a society of the same name whose object is to study Chinese institutions. Each teaches the language of the other. The hundreds of students upon graduation have been sent out to make a survey of the economic status of the great Chinese empire. Kiyoshi K. Kawakami, writing of it in the *New York Times*, tells how these students have supplemented the work of scholars treating the broader aspects of finance, railroads, commer-

cial usages and geography, postal and telegraph systems, trade marks, weights and measures and natural and manufactured products—the last alone taking five volumes running up to 5,000 pages.

Speaking of the students, he says:

"Attired in garbs of plebeian Chinese, often wearing queues Chinese fashion, some of them would disappear into the wilds of Yun-nan or Kwei-chou. For months or years nothing would be heard from them; at the headquarters in Shanghai deep apprehension would be entertained as to the safety of their lives; but in most instances one day they would come back like victorious warriors of old, their bags filled with notebooks that have thrown a flood of light upon the condition of those unexplored regions. Thus it was that the data for *A Comprehensive Book on the Economic Conditions in China* were obtained. These data were carefully examined, scrutinized, systematized, and

finally put together in book form by the Editorial Committee of the Society at its headquarters in Tokio. The work, therefore, is the embodiment of an immense amount of labor, the due reward for hardships heroically borne."

* * *

One of the by-products of the progress of public hygiene and rural sanitation is a steady decrease in the calls for trained nurses on private duty. L. L. Dock, writing in *The American Journal of Nursing*, points out that some private nurses are even having a hard time of it. For one thing, to take a conspicuous instance, the usual fall crop of typhoid does not now follow the return of people from the country. But the nurse need not fear for her profession. If private nursing should entirely cease—as Miss Dock prays it may, "for that would mean a high standard of public health"—nurses and physicians can give their whole time to preventive work—"in keeping people well."

Of the opportunities opening to the nurse, Miss Dock says: "I predict that in ten years more the work of the tuberculosis propaganda for nurses, openings in public school work, hospital social service work, district nursing positions, positions as nurse in large industrial establishments, pure milk stations, preventive work among mothers of the uneducated classes and their children, tenement house inspection, schoolhouse inspection, and various branches of work under boards of health, will more than counterbalance the past predominance of private duty. Add to this list the daily enlarging field of institutional work that is now open to nurses. Not only training-school work and head-nurse positions, in far larger number than was ever dreamed of twenty-five years ago, but heads of hospitals, as the roster of the Superintendents' Society shows very strikingly; positions in all kinds of special institutions, such as colonies for various kinds of unfortunates; now the vast mass of work for the insane is being offered to the study and sympathy of women of a higher grade of general, preliminary equipment than that invited into state hospitals in the past. Here is an enormous field which will in the future continually raise its standards and so both take in, and send forth, a more highly qualified worker."

* * *

The intelligent sentiment of Jewry throughout the world is almost a unit in believing that the settlement of the Jewish question in eastern Europe can be met only by the colonization of the Jew in other lands where he will have the guarantee of political and religious liberty. While the Zionist believes that the old home in Palestine offers

the only solution of the problem, the Ito which is the Jewish territorial organization under the leadership of Israel Zangwill, is interested in numerous other equally definite programs, one of which is the forming of large Jewish settlements in Mexico.

Associated in this movement with Mr. Zangwill is Joseph Fels of the council of the Ito, who has been traveling extensively in Mexico with the particular object in view of locating Jewish colonies. Mr. Fels has had the active assistance of John W. deKay, president of the Mexican National Packing Company, who has recently written an article in the *Whitehall Review* in which he has given the substance of several protracted interviews with President Diaz.

According to Mr. deKay, President Diaz expressed himself most favorably towards the movement and said that the Jew will be made welcome in his country in small or large numbers.

The Ito has also been able to avail itself of the expert information of Daniel Guggenheim, another member of its council, who has extensive mining interests in Mexico.

* * *

While the Jews of Eastern Europe are seeking repatriation in Palestine, the *Alianza Hispano-Israelite* is conducting a propaganda in Spain to bring the Spanish and Portuguese Jews back to the peninsula. A recent appeal in behalf of this movement was signed by a number of prominent Spaniards including Senor Maret, the former minister-president, Senor Canalejas a former president of the Cortez, the poets Ibanez and Galdos, and the republican leader Nakens. Commenting upon the movement the Turkish correspondent of the *Correspondencia de Espana* points out that the old Castilian language has maintained itself for four centuries among the Spanish Jews in the Ottoman Empire, who have preserved its original purity to a greater extent than have the Spaniards themselves. In view of this the writer expresses surprise that the Spanish people have done nothing to win back so useful and loyal an element of their former greatness.

* * *

Announcement is made that the reports of the President's Homes Commission may be obtained free of the secretary George M. Kober, M. D., 920 H street, N. W., Washington, D. C. To date there are four publications as follows: Industrial and Personal Hygiene, Dr. Kober; Social Betterment, Dr. Kober; Building of Model Houses, George M. Sternberg, M. D.; Improvement of Existing Houses and Elimination of Insanitary and Alley Houses, William H. Baldwin.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

A PSYCHOLOGIST'S CRITICISM OF THE EMMANUEL MOVEMENT

The most searching, and we are bound to add, the most damaging criticism to which the Emmanuel movement has been subjected appears in *The Psychological Clinic* from the pen of its editor, Prof. Lightner Witmer. Dr. Worcester and his associates in this movement are severely arraigned for the premature exploitation of their work, especially in the first number of their journal *Psychotherapy*, but the real target of Dr. Witmer's well aimed and heavy artillery is evidently the faculty of philosophy and psychology in Harvard University. Hugo Münsterberg's "yellow psychology," the "occult and mystical elements of the psycho-philosophical theories" of the "spoiled child of American psychology," William James, and the "obscurantist attitude" of Professor Royce are disparaging epithets which may not unnaturally be attributed by the loyal admirers of Harvard's distinguished scholars, to some variety of academic or professional jealousy for which only the specialist could make proper allowance.

The author of the criticism is evidently very serious in his conviction that "the further development of the Emmanuel movement is likely to accomplish more harm than good." The principles of psychotherapy to which Dr. Worcester and his associates adhere are declared to be based upon neither sound medicine nor sound psychology, nor to our lay mind, "upon sound religion." It is as a psychologist that Dr. Witmer is especially qualified to criticize, rather than as a physician or a theologian, although in passing we may remark upon the justice of his resentment against Dr. Worcester's intimation that "the training of our physicians is strictly material." The rejoinder is obvious that until they enter the professional school physicians and clergymen usually partake of much the same training and that it is open to question whether a course in a divinity school is any more certain to develop an exalted moral character than a course in a medical school. If the test be devotion to social service, it is quite true, as Dr. Witmer insists, and as Emmanuel church itself illustrates, that we find the medical profession presenting the most conspicuous examples of an unselfish service for mankind in their writings, in their attendance on free dispensaries and hospitals, in public addresses, in work on sanitary and hygienic commissions and in the active support of important public measures.

Our critic finds little warrant for the belief that the neurologist, or even the general medical practitioner, has "failed to pay as much heed to psychology as is warranted in view of the present undeveloped state of that science." "In fact," he adds, "we must admit in all fairness that the physician and the social worker exhibit a greater readiness of mind to accept the co-operation of the professional psychologist, than do those whose training and experience lie within the profession of the ministry."

This, however, is a side issue. The more serious objection is that the hypnotic and suggestive method, which is the central feature of the psychotherapy in question, is founded upon an essentially false psychology. Hypnotism Dr. Witmer considers a "very satisfactory agent for occasional use." On the other hand, its general use by clergymen, or even by professional hypnotists, merits disapproval. Around the constant employment of hypnotism there inevitably gathers an element of charlatanry. The operator must to some extent dupe the patient. The latter must have the impression, as nearly as possible, that there are no failures. Other specific elements of danger are present of which physicians are well aware, and which lead them to resort to hypnotism but rarely and then with safeguards that appear not always to be provided in church clinics.

More important even than these specific dangers is the challenge which Dr. Witmer brings against the Emmanuel treatment of disease and defective character that it is based upon principles which are subversive of the morality professed by Christianity and developed through the philosophic systems of western Europe. The criticism is so vital and in our judgment so sound that we reproduce the author's own statement of the contrast between the "subconscious" type of morality and the disciplinary type which he prefers:

This morality, in strong contrast to Worcesterism, presupposes a very different training, one which prepares the youth for a strenuous personal combat against the forces which make for evil in himself and in the world. An appeal to his reason is supposed to awaken in the young offender an intellectual appreciation of the nature and consequences of wrong action. The effort is made to build up conscious and volitional inhibitions of instinctive, automatic and reflex activities. Spiritual growth is cultivated through training, which is supplemented by an intimate acquaintance with the thought and actions of the great moral leaders of the world. To do right, men must, to an extent, think right, and Dr. Worcester to the contrary notwithstanding, neither right thinking nor right acting proceeds from the consciousness of a hypnotized subject. The systems of belief which represent the antithesis of the intellectual and moral ideals of our European civilization, namely, oriental mysticism and theosophy, cultivate a laxness of spirit characteristic of this dream state, and consign the will and character to the automatic, *i. e.*, subconscious, currents of imagination and emotion. There is something repugnant in Worcester's theory that the subconscious mind, which is most active in suggestion, is purer and freer from evil than our waking consciousness. A woman recently asked help of the Psychological Clinic at the University of Pennsylvania in controlling the actions of her son, a youth of eighteen or nineteen years. She claimed he showed no respect for her opinions, no regard for her feelings, declined to work at any profitable employment, refused to do small chores about the house, and appropriated to his own use any sum of money she might not have under her constant guard. And yet her view,—and this was the view upon which she had trained the boy,—was that he was subconsciously refined, noble, and admirable. It was only his actions, she said, that were abnormal and wrong, and she wanted to know whether we could not, by absent treatment (as she could not get the boy to come to the laboratory), cause his subconscious self to gain control over his conscious activities. She had apparently tried to dream the boy into paths of rectitude instead of compelling him thereto by the force of stern moral discipline. The hypnotic consciousness, the dream consciousness, the relaxed moments of revery, the alcoholic and drug consciousness, the so-called subconsciousness,—these are closely allied.

THE COMMON WELFARE

VOTERS' LEAGUE SWEEPS CHICAGO

The fourteenth campaign of the Chicago Municipal Voters' League for honest and capable aldermen has achieved perhaps its most decisive victory. Early in the year's struggle the league took an aggressive attitude toward one of the most delicate and involved situations it ever faced. The open, square issues on which it was formerly easy to line up candidates in two distinct classes to be endorsed or disapproved, have largely disappeared with the improvement of the council. The tests of aldermanic fidelity to the city's interests and capacity to serve them are not so obvious and decisive as when the gang mustered fifty-eight of the sixty-eight council members. Capacity is now tested more by an alderman's committee work. The lines dividing the sheep from the goats shade off invisibly to the naked eye, as dishonesty has been driven to cover, and the wolves forced to masquerade in sheep's clothing.

But into their lairs of entangling business alliances the league pursued its prey. Questions propounded to outgoing aldermen as to whether they or members of their immediate families were engaged in any business having dealings with the city, brought answers that several were not candidates for re-election. By this one stroke of strategy factors were eliminated from the problem, which do not appear upon the face of the election returns. Thus the results will be apparent not only in better nominations but in far greater caution upon the part of those who might otherwise carelessly or criminally violate the law.

By just such carelessness or criminality the long discredited "gray wolf" gang of notoriously corrupt aldermen had begun to creep back into power on committees, and to gain accessions to its pack. Fortunately its members felt strong and bold enough to join issue with public opinion in and out of the council, in try-

ing to overthrow the non-partisan organization of its committees, which had been brought about for years through a caucus called by invitations of the Municipal Voters' League. The vote forced in council on this issue lined up nineteen aldermen in what the league promptly termed the "roll of dishonor." These dishonorable further blackened their own characters by trying to profit by a base, yet baseless, slander against an officer of the league.

Thus the issue was definitely and decisively drawn in most of the wards. In some, long dominated by gangsters in control of floating voters or the voting floaters, there was no contest. Of nine such wards eight were sure to return candidates rejected by the league as "totally unfit." In only one ward where the league had a fighting chance to defeat such a candidate was the election lost by the better man.

Election day registered the return of twenty-three candidates preferred by the league and only nine who were decidedly disapproved. Two statistical results of the voting are noteworthy. The total vote of fewer wards returning better aldermen was greater than the total vote of many more wards returning disreputable men. So disproportionate has the size of the wards become, that the smaller wards with a decreasing population have come to have an undue representation in the City Council. The other notable fact is that Prof. Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago was elected to the council by the largest majority polled by any candidate.

The moral results of this overwhelming victory of the league were greater than can be stated either by the number and character of the elected aldermen or by their majorities. It means an immense increase in the prestige of the league and in popular confidence in the intelligence and integrity of its findings. The press of the city gave the report of the league a far more unanimous and

hearty support than ever before. And better than all, this most independent city electorate greatly recruited its rank and file and strengthened its courage and confidence in wielding the balance of power within and between parties.

Such public sentiment assumes constructive legislation for the great public works about to be undertaken from the forty-one endorsed members of the council, no matter what the twenty-two discredited men may do, or how the seven may line up who come from wards where the league had no recommendations to offer.

CHICAGO WINS SANATORIUM

The voters of Chicago have again demonstrated the discretion with which they cast their "little ballots" on a referendum vote. Out of 206,640 votes recorded on the proposition to levy a tax of not more than one mill to erect and maintain a sanatorium for consumptives, 167,230 were in favor, and 39,410 opposed, thereby establishing the greatly needed hospital by a vote of nearly four to one. This vote is the response to the effective educational campaign of the Tuberculosis Institute and the City Health Department, whose progressive commissioner, Dr. Evans, has been fittingly appointed director of the sanatorium with power to nominate the two other members of the board. Such voting confirms hope for the progress of democracy.

CITIZENS' RECREATION COMMITTEE PROPOSED

A meeting was held on April 13 to take preliminary steps towards the organization of a citizens' recreation committee for New York city, to co-ordinate and unify the various phases of recreation; moving pictures, dance halls, parks, playgrounds, schools. As has been pointed out frequently in these columns, there is need for unifying the agencies at work, for counteracting a policy of restriction by one of extension, for substituting action for criticism and for stimulating a still wider interest in the subject. The call for the meeting, which was sent to more than one hundred representative

citizens, was signed by Rt. Rev. David H. Greer, John Mitchell, Rt. Rev. Mgr. Joseph F. Mooney, V. G.; Miss Anne Morgan, Thomas M. Mulry, George D. Pratt, the Rev. Dr. Samuel Schulman.

A platform, a program of action and a method of organization have been agreed upon as essential, the plan of action being left to a committee composed of Dr. Walter Laidlaw, Miss Elisabeth Marbury, Rt. Rev. D. J. McMahon, Dr. Henry Moscovitz, Mrs. Miriam Sutro Price, Prof. Charles Sprague Smith, Dr. Gaylord S. White, Mrs. Mary Hatch Willard.

It is the sentiment of the Citizens' Recreation Committee that wholesome recreation and amusement are essential to the welfare of the people; that a policy of rational regulation, rather than one of repression of the resources of enjoyment, should be adopted; that existing resources should be controlled, developed, and extended.

As to the program, recommendation will be made that a survey of the recreation facilities of the city be prepared, including a statement of conditions now existing, and of the possibilities which might be developed; that this report be made through the recommendations from organizations now at work on specific aspects, and such supplementary paid assistance as may be necessary.

Reports will be submitted from the dance hall committee, the moving picture committee, and the outdoor facilities, upon which action will be taken. Norman Hapgood, editor of *Collier's Weekly*, has been asked to make a statement with reference to the conditions of the theater.

The committee on organization will recommend an executive committee of ten with final power and a ways and means committee in charge of securing funds to carry out plans adopted.

There are many possibilities for recreation in New York which can be properly brought out and carried on only by the impulse received from the work of a central committee representing all interests such as the proposed citizens' recreation committee.

The organization of the committee just at the time when the forces fighting for

the preservation of Central Park have formally organized, is significant of a growth and strength of public opinion in New York, which may be counted upon eventually to enlarge and intensify the city's recreation resources—possibly some day to make them measurably adequate.

SAVING NEW YORK'S BABIES

The New York Health Department, through its newly created Bureau of Child Hygiene, is planning an extensive campaign to reduce infant mortality by instructive nursing among the mothers and infants of the tenements.

As in 1908 the department will co-operate with the Conference on the Care of Infants, which first met at the department headquarters last week. Twenty-eight of the forty-five organizations represented were present.

The work of the Summer Conference and of the Bureau of Child Hygiene in New York will begin on April 15 when the full force of 140 school nurses now employed by the Health Department, relieved of their main school duties by the medical inspectors, will turn their attention to mothers and babies. For the first two weeks their time will be devoted mainly to first births and cases reported by midwives. Later, babies more than twelve months old, in addition to newborn infants to whom the work was confined exclusively last season, will be looked after. Particular attention will be paid to foundlings for the first time. At present they are boarded out under permits issued by the Health Department which will this year revoke them and return the babies to proper institutions when judgment and safety warrant.

Lectures on infant hygiene will be given by medical inspectors in the public schools, to teachers and the older girl pupils before the end of the term. In this way it is hoped to arouse interest in infants and their care. Similar lectures and consultations in the vacation schools will be given later. Instruction given by nurses in the homes covers fundamental principles of infant feeding, sanitation, and hygiene. In addition to these and to

lectures by medical inspectors, printed instructions on milk sanitation, hygiene and refrigeration will be drawn up by a special committee of the Summer Conference consisting of Drs. William P. Northrup, Henry Dwight Chapin and Henry Koplik. These instructions will be circularized broadly throughout the city.

By co-operating with the *Herald* ice fund, proper refrigeration of milk will be provided. In Brooklyn the *Herald* ice is distributed under the auspices of the Children's Aid Society. Plans for a new method of distribution in Manhattan have been formulated by the New York Milk Committee of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, which, if carried out, will be a great improvement on the existing system. These plans associate the dispensation of ice and milk and provide for an adequate supply under a system of just and discriminating relief.

Modified milk for infants will be provided as last year, not only by the New York Milk Committee but by Nathan Straus and the Good Samaritan Dispensary. The Diet Kitchen Association will furnish whole milk for home modification. At the close of the summer the work of the nurses employed by the Health Department will be continued so far as their school duties will permit. Dr. S. Josephine Baker, chief of the Bureau of Child Hygiene hopes ultimately that the nurses will be able to give their entire time to the work. A second meeting of the conference will be held Monday, May 3.

BROTHERLY LOVE AND PROFESSIONAL BEGGARS

Aside from its relics, its well polished steps and shining doorknobs and general air of well being, Philadelphia has at least one other distinctive attribute—one of which it is not so proud. With the recollection of dignified homes and famous halls and well kept streets, the Philadelphia visitor will also remember the city by its strange collection of prosperous beggars who parade Market street with accordions, flutes, cornets and vocal lamentations. Singly they march

and in pairs, and years of municipal forbearance have made them fixtures almost as strong as Independence Hall or William Penn's statue.

In response to a request from the mayor and the director of public health and charities, representatives of the leading private charities have held several conferences at the City Hall on this subject of street begging. Except for occasional brief raids by the police, the practice has been practically unchecked, and many blind and halt from other places have established themselves in Philadelphia, finding professional mendicancy richly rewarded.

A plan recently recommended by the charities of the city has not yet been carried out as a whole, though the police are at present unusually active in making arrests. Unless all the recommendations are adopted and persistently pressed forward, the present crusade will fail inevitably. The report of the charities declares their earnest desire to avoid unkindness to all beggars who are the victims of misfortune, and enumerates the following classes of residents for whom adequate private aid can be assured:

1. Decent men and women just out of hospital and needing convalescent care.
2. Persons with good work records who are without employment through no fault of their own.
3. Persons having some physical handicap, but who are still anxious to earn whatever they can by honest labor.
4. Respectable heads of families who are permanently disabled in any way, and whose children are too young to be breadwinners.
5. Respectable widows who have young children to care for.

Private charities cannot spend their money, the report states, to help people in families whose vicious habits unfit them for family life. Such beggars must be assisted by public institutions or through sources of help that are other than charitable.

The specific recommendations of the report, signed by the Society for Organizing Charity, the Children's Aid Society, the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind, the Union Benevolent Asso-

ciation, the Salvation Army, and the Home Missionary Society, are as follows:

1. Five plainclothes men to be detailed by the Department of Public Safety for special police duty in arresting all beggars, and forwarding statements of arrest and inquiry to the Department of Public Health and Charities.

2. A special clerk in the Department of Public Health and Charities to receive reports of these arrests, to maintain an index file of beggars and vagrants, to forward information from the same for the magistrate's hearing, and to seek further information and means of treatment and care in doubtful cases.

3. Co-operation of the magistrates with this special clerk in securing such data, in using it for the benefit of the beggar, and in furthering this general plan.

4. Full term of sentence to the House of Correction to be served by all who are committed to that institution for begging.

5. The Department of Public Safety to secure, by public ordinance or by state law, the power to revoke all peddlers' licenses that are being used as a blind for begging.

6. Upon the adoption by the city government of these regulations and also upon their enforcement, the private charities whose names are affixed to the report are to pledge themselves to give suitable care to the classes of cases already enumerated as fitted for private care.

A committee of magistrates, the director of public safety, and other city officials, meeting with the mayor, accepted this report, but, before many of its suggestions could be worked out, arrests were begun by the police, more especially of the blind musicians on Market street.

Other cities are already beginning to make inquiries of Philadelphia about the crippled professionals who have taken warning and gone elsewhere. New York, in the present absence of molestation of beggars by the police, may expect to receive its share. Perhaps Twenty-third street will fall heir to the musical monstrosities of Market street. But the quiet and steady dealing with each case on its merits, with full provision for investigation and for adequate relief when found to be needed, will be far more effective than spectacular raids in dealing with this evil.

NEW ORLEANS PLANS FOR BETTER TENEMENTS

New Orleans is putting backbone into its regulation of tenements. Assaults on the present ordinance have recently been repulsed; more systematic inspection and enforcement are being developed; and in the revision of the building ordinances the Tenement Commission is co-operating.

The ordinance regulating tenement houses was passed by the City Council a little more than three years ago. No provision was made for the enforcement of the law, and it remained a dead letter for a year. Then another ordinance was passed, creating the New Orleans Tenement House Advisory Commission, to undertake the enforcement of the law. No funds were provided for the use of the commission, and groups of volunteers, headed by its members acted as inspectors commissioned by the mayor. A distinct improvement in certain localities was brought about through the commission's activity in disclosing conditions and some public interest was aroused.

The co-operation of the city health officer and his department resulted in a number of affidavits and fines, which exercised a wholesome influence on property owners. This aroused the Property Holders' Association which asked for a conference with the commission and requested that the ordinance, which ought to be far stricter than it is, be modified to a still milder form. This, of course, the commission could not consider.

A petition to the mayor for means to enforce the ordinance more effectively, resulted last November in the appointment of a special inspector for the commission. He is assisted by two undergraduates from Tulane University.

The building ordinances of New Orleans are being revised, and a representative from the Tenement House Commission is on the committee which will present the revised ordinances to the council for adoption.

SOUTHERN CHILD LABOR CONFERENCE

In the contest over a better child labor law in the Louisiana Legislature last summer, the issue most warmly debated was whether a working day of nine hours or ten should be adopted for children under eighteen years of age, and for women. The Legislature decided upon the ten-hour day and Governor Sanders promised Miss Jean Gordon, who had led the fight for child labor reform, to call a conference in New Orleans to recommend a uniform child labor law for the southern states. Governor Sanders wrote to all the southern governors asking them to attend the conference personally if possible and to send interested delegates: manufacturers, representatives of labor unions, and of different associations pledged to child labor reform. Delegates to the conference were appointed by all the southern governors except Governor Comer of Alabama, and Governor Campbell of Texas. Governor Comer's reason for not appointing delegates—that Alabama had already the best child labor law in the country with the possible exception of Massachusetts, was so ridiculous that his action focused attention upon the deficiencies of the Alabama law, it being generally believed that these rather than the excellence of the law furnished the reason why the governor, himself a cotton manufacturer, deplored any further discussion or agitation of the subject in Alabama.

Governor Hadley of Missouri and Governor Noel of Mississippi attended the conference and took an active part in the discussion. The states represented by delegates were Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Georgia, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri and Oklahoma. Governor Sanders was elected permanent chairman of the conference, Senator Colville, of Oklahoma, secretary, and a resolutions committee was appointed, with two members from each state represented, to which was referred all the important business of the conference.

While this committee was preparing its report, a number of instructive addresses were delivered. Miss Jean Gordon spoke on the Need of Uniform Legislation;

James W. Van Cleave, president of the National Manufacturers' Association, on Child Labor from the Manufacturers' Point of View; C. J. Teller, of New Orleans, on Compulsory Education; Miss Kate Barnard, of Oklahoma, on The Rights of Childhood; Thomas J. Harrison, of New Orleans, on Child Labor from a Laboring Man's Point of View, and Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, on Child Labor Conditions Throughout the Nation.

Governor Sanders, as chairman of the conference, ruled that as the subject of compulsory education had not been specifically mentioned in the call, it could not be discussed. This resulted in a full discussion of the intimate connection between compulsory education and child labor legislation, and the sentiment of the conference was evidently overwhelmingly in favor of compulsory education. In deference to Governor Sanders's wishes, however, and in consideration of the local problems in Louisiana, no resolutions were offered on that subject. The report of the resolutions committee signed by all the members except Mr. Van Cleave and two other manufacturers, was adopted with practical unanimity. A minority report offered by G. W. Pratt, a manufacturer from Mississippi, proposed to defer action until state commissions appointed by each governor should have made an investigation of child labor conditions. The introduction of this report gave opportunity for the manufacturers to set forth the blessings of cotton mills, and the improvement in conditions of operatives over those who live in rural districts of southern states. A stereopticon lecture showing actual conditions of cotton mill children from photographs taken by Mr. Hine and others, rather dissipated the claims made that cotton mills were benefactors of children. Abbreviated resolutions adopted by the conference follow:

First—That the minimum age for the employment of children in any gainful occupation, except agriculture and domestic service, be fixed at fourteen years.

Second—That no child under the age of sixteen years be employed in or about any mine or quarry, or in any occupation danger-

ous to life or limb or injurious to health or good morals.

Third—That no child under the age of sixteen years be employed in any gainful occupation, except agricultural and domestic service unless such child can read and write simple sentences in English.

Fourth—That no boy under the age of sixteen years and no girl under the age of eighteen years be employed in any gainful occupation, except agricultural or domestic service, between the hours of seven P. M. and six A. M.

Fifth—That an eight-hour day for children under sixteen, and women, is the only humane standard for hours of employment, and we hope this standard will be reached by all Southern States. That legislation is necessary which will provide that no child under sixteen years of age, and no woman, be employed more than fifty-four hours in any one week, or an average of nine hours per day, and no such boy or woman shall be employed more than nine hours in any one day unless it be for the purpose of allowing a half-holiday on Saturday, and then such employment shall not exceed ten hours in any one day.

Seventh—That a law requiring the registration of all births be adopted by the states interested herein, to the end that the future administration of the child labor law may be simplified and made more effective.

Eighth—That we recommend a proper guide for sanitary and safety regulations.

(Such a list is appended in the resolutions adopted.)

Ninth—That we regard a state system of factory inspection as essential to the enforcement of all child labor laws; that each state should make ample preparation for the employment of proper officials and assistants for the inspection of all mines and factories, and that such inspectors should be given the power and be required to see to the enforcing of child labor laws, and that they should be given authority to prosecute the violations of all such laws.

Tenth—That the laws recommended for the protection of women and children should be accompanied by adequate penalties to enforce observance.

In accordance with the last resolution, a permanent organization was effected, with Governor Sanders as president, a vice-president from each state, and an executive committee of one member from each state. The committee elected George L. Schon, of Louisville, chairman. It was agreed that a similar conference should be called next year and Memphis, Tennessee, was suggested as the probable place of meeting. When the Southern States adopt the standard here proposed, they will excel the present

legislation of New England. The argument made by the manufacturers against the nine-hour day was that they would be at a disadvantage with eastern cotton mill states.

LEGISLATION IN INDIANA

The work of the Indiana General Assembly, so far as it relates to charities and social problems, is decidedly creditable. The laws enacted generally will strengthen the state's excellent system of public charities. For instance there are the bills relating to maternity hospitals, foundling asylums and children's institutions, jail supervision and police matrons. Under some of these measures existing abuses can be prevented. The laws designed to improve social conditions such as the acts on housing, playgrounds and a free employment bureau, are measures in the right direction. Several reactionary bills failed to pass. They included those placing men on the boards of trustees of the Indiana Girls' School and the Indiana Woman's Prison, and repealing the indeterminate sentence law.

The law on jail supervision requires the Board of State Charities to report to the judge of the circuit court the condition of the county jail, and gives him authority to require it to be put in proper condition, to establish rules for the conduct of prisoners and to have a written report made by the sheriff as to the jail population the first day of each term of court. If conditions are bad and the judge does not act, authority is given to the governor to condemn the jail and order the prisoners to be removed to another county until proper changes are made. The law requires the keeping of a jail record; that the sheriff shall make a written report quarterly to the Board of County Commissioners; that the board shall inspect the jail quarterly.

The law relating to the Indiana Girls' School at Clermont is changed so that the minimum age of commitment is ten years and the maximum age eighteen. All girls are to be committed until they are twenty-one unless sooner released by the Board of Trustees. Provision is made for the investigation of homes before

girls are released and for their supervision after placement. It is also made a misdemeanor for any person to cause or encourage any girl to violate the rules of the school.

Provision is made for paying the expenses of a representative of each board of county charities to the State Conference of Charities and Correction.

The adult probation law is amended, so that county clerks are required to notify the prison within five days. The judge is obliged to keep the probationed man within the jurisdiction of the court until the agent of the institution arrives. The authorities are also required to revoke suspension of sentence and release a prisoner from further oversight when he has properly conducted himself for the minimum term of his sentence.

One of the most interesting and helpful measures is the act relating to maternity homes and children's institutions. This provides a means for supervising every child-caring institution in the state. Every such agency must obtain an annual written license from the Board of State Charities. In Indianapolis, particularly, the abuses discovered in connection with the care of children, especially in maternity hospitals, foundling asylums, baby farms and child-placing agencies, so shocked the community that a dozen or more agencies, both public and private, united in the preparation of this bill and appeared before the committee of the Legislature to urge its passage. Other agencies and institutions contributed their support to the measure.

The new law defines four classes of institutions and agencies to come under its provisions: maternity hospitals, including lying-in homes of all kinds; boarding houses for infants, including foundling asylums and baby farms; all children's homes, orphan asylums and child placing agencies; all agencies engaged in finding homes for or otherwise disposing of infants. The law carries a penalty clause for all who violate its provisions. It does not have an emergency clause and will not become effective until the governor's proclamation regarding all the session laws.

The bill providing for a police matron

in cities from the size of Lafayette up should be helpful in preventing abuses.

The measure relating to labor contracts at the State Prison at Michigan City extends the present system of convict labor until October 1, 1920. The authorities can let out the labor of 600 convicts and fifty per cent of all over 800 additional. Thus when there are 1,200 prisoners, 800 of them can be employed under contract on daily or piece price plan. Not more than 100 persons may be employed on any contract and for not more than eight hours a day.

While it would have been far better to provide for the insane convicts elsewhere, the bill which passed, establishing a hospital for their care at the State Prison, is a temporary expedient that appealed to many. At the present rate of increase it will be but a few years before the number of insane prisoners to be cared for therein will reach 250. Then a separate hospital will be needed for them. The building to be erected will doubtless be so planned that it will be useful afterwards as a part of the prison group.

The bill providing for uniform public accounting applies to all institutions and all officials. It can be made a very helpful feature of the public service.

Altogether some twenty laws relating to social affairs and to public charities were passed. Some of them are destined to be of great help to the state. Several of them take decidedly progressive steps.

A QUIET DAY FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

One solution of the constant problem, the relation of the church to social workers, was exemplified the other day by an invitation extended by St. Stephen's Church in Boston to the social workers of that city to spend a "quiet day" at the church. St. Stephen's has been carrying on neighborhood work for some time in the South End, but the fact that it includes among its parishioners the heads of five of the leading social service houses in its immediate district puts the church at once in touch with those who are

working for city betterment. It was in the name of these five leaders, with the clergy, that invitations were sent out to six hundred of the social workers of Boston: heads of charitable organizations, social students, residents in settlements, investigators and recorders for philanthropic societies and others. About three hundred took advantage of the opportunity offered, over half remaining throughout the entire day.

In the morning the periods of silence between the addresses gave opportunity for the quiet thought that a busy social worker craves, and the singing of well-known hymns brought out the communal feeling of the congregation. The addresses, however, were what gave point to the day. Dean Hodges's active service some years ago for the betterment of Pittsburgh, his ripening Christian scholarship along with active interest in associated charity and settlement work since he has been at Cambridge, have made him the person to preach the Gospel to social workers.

At the first conference in the afternoon, Rev. Mr. Denison of the Central Congregational Church spoke on the importance of having a professed Christianity show itself in some form of social service. Rev. Mr. Shields made a strong plea for personal idealistic philosophy as a background for social work.

The speakers at the second conference, Lincoln Steffens and John F. Moors, were both well-known to the audience. Mr. Steffens gave a characteristic defence of "pull" as used by the local politician, pointing out its value in terms of social service. Mr. Moors took issue with him on moral grounds, stating that the future of the young men of our nation depends upon their realizing their successes by ability and not by pull. The debate was vigorous, and formed a not unhappy contrast to the prevailing "quiet" of the day.

Vesper service in the church closed the day. Bishop Lawrence spoke a final word upon the value of reserve power for social workers, calling attention to the importance of spiritual strength in a busy life.

AMERICA INTO CLIMBING

“TOILING
PAINFULLY
UPWARD
FROM THE
MOMENT
THEY REACH
ELLIS ISLAND.”



Photos
by Hine

The report of the New York Immigration Commission, appointed five months ago “to make full inquiry, examination and investigation into the condition, welfare and industrial opportunities of aliens in the state of New York,” comprises a well-grounded argument for the establishment of a state department of industries and immigration “specially charged with duties which shall tend best to secure to the state the economic advantages derivable from an intelligent utilization of the alien in industrial, agricultural and other employments, and which shall at the same time protect the alien from exploitation, fraud and oppression, and facilitate his development into intelligent and useful citizenship for the ultimate advancement of the state. Such a bureau or department could act as a clearing house, and as a medium of communication with the several agencies and activities with which the alien may come in contact, or with which it is desirable that he should be

enabled to communicate. It would serve as a means for abating abuses, remedying wrongs, and studying conditions, with an eye to their amelioration, and of preventing economic and moral waste.”

Difficulty in securing work, schooling and justice is shown to be almost inevitable for the immigrant of these days. The commission pictures him as, typically, a man, young, unmarried or coming before his wife; a laborer, strong, willing, unskilled; a peasant, used to outdoor labor, to repression, oversight, obedience; a “foreigner” in the completest sense of the word, speaking an alien tongue, wearing outlandish clothes, uneducated, unused to voting, violating city ordinances and customs by some of the commonest acts of his rural life—a man, nevertheless, who “has become a constituent force in every field of American endeavor—on the farm, in the factory, in the mine. In the construction of railroads and other public works he has become indispensable.” He is the stuff we are made of. “He has

become rapidly assimilated with the great body of our citizenship and has intelligently furthered the progress of the nation. His children, indistinguishable from those of the early settlers, now constitute an integral part of the American people. Indeed the word 'American' does not apply to racial stock or to creed or belief or length of residence, but to citizenship in this republic."

"Alien" is defined as "a foreign-born person who has resided in the United States for a period of less than five years." By such measure there are in the state 500,000, or six per cent of the population. That alone would make a study of immigration of moment to New York, but it must be remembered, additionally, that four-fifths of all aliens arrive at Ellis Island, nearly two-thirds express an intention of settling in the state, and New York city is headquarters for hundreds of agents who distribute laborers over the country.

The recommendation of the new state department is based on the reports of investigators, the minutes of hearings, a great mass of correspondence, official opinions, court decisions and affidavits which are summarized and interpreted in the report. From it we see swarms of men and women coming to America as the land of the free, anticipating easy entrance and quick opportunity; realizing that they must in fact climb into America, toiling painfully upward from the moment they start to mount the stairs at Ellis Island. The great bales of luggage piled on their backs at the port of entry typify the heavy burdens they must carry through the first years with us.

Hard work, intelligence and adaptability should be required, or enforced by experience, as qualities necessary for American citizenship. But to the inevitable handicaps of alienage we have ourselves added others, or thoughtlessly permitted immigrants of an earlier tide to devise them. Natives may not find it worth while to exploit the individual Jew or Italian or Slav as he lands at the Battery, but his kith and kin greet him with effusive cordiality as they charge him five dollars for a five-cent elevated ticket, exchange his money for Confederate bills,

place him in the hands of *padroni* to secure work, or direct his daughters to intelligence offices which recruit houses of ill fame. After that the American has a turn, sending him to unsanitary camps or amongst destroying, unguarded factory wheels, charging him full rates for travel on dirty, crowded "immigrant" trains run on freight schedules.

But the alien is prone to remain in cities, "though a rural worker at home." This is because of "ignorance of opportunities and resources in other parts of the country, lack of incentive or the means to live elsewhere, reluctance to leave the small colony to which he first attaches himself and where he can have association with his own nationality and race and especially with those of his native province, the lack of protection from the pitfalls which beset him in seeking to make his way alone among strangers, and the self-interest of those who profit by his remaining in the city." Results — congestion, sweated trades, long hours, low pay, child labor, low standard of living, high mortality, immorality, crime.

But in spite of his handicaps, this alien finds and holds work and saves money. This he deposits in private banks run by his countrymen. Interest is paid on less than half the deposits, and that at about two and one-half per cent against four at the savings banks. The small private banks are often more steamship agencies than financial institutions, but they do an annual business of many million dollars in the savings of the poor. Their methods are frequently dishonest, very largely unbusinesslike. "The commission has been impressed by the fact that although during the late financial panic a considerable number of banks and trust companies went into insolvency, the depositors in those institutions suffered practically no loss, while during the same period the loss sustained by the depositors in the private banks which are now under consideration, has run into the millions." The alien is the victim today of such wildcat banks as were the rule in our early days.

A very large number of immigrants come on prepaid tickets, bought here by

relatives and friends. Attempts to regulate the business have not succeeded, and "for two or three hundred authorized agents for whom the companies stand sponsor, there are probably 3,000 peddlers or runners who sell tickets for cash or on the installment plan, on pushcarts, in tenements and shops." They overcharge and defraud. Notaries public who, abroad, are men of special training and position, here commonly play the part of rogues, often uneducated, sometimes not speaking English, cunning—"willing to antedate papers, to arrange for illegal and immoral transactions, to act as go-betweens in the renting of disorderly houses, to engage in fraudulent real estate transactions, to take affidavits which they know to be false."

In his relations to the law the non-English-speaking alien is peculiarly the prey of shyster lawyers and their steerers and to professional bondsmen. Interpreters are not provided in sufficient numbers, or commanding all needed languages. They translate into English what the alien prisoner says, but do not interpret for him the testimony of the prosecution. He hears only his own side of the case. Congestion and delay, exploited by petty politicians, characterize the courts where naturalization papers are issued. "Of forty men recently naturalized, thirty per cent complained of delays, of being compelled to appear many times with their witnesses, of flagrant favoritism and of contemptuous and insulting treatment." For five dollars a downtown politician offered to secure first papers for an in-

vestigator in ten minutes, and final papers for from fifteen to thirty dollars.

Homes for immigrants were found to vary from those rendering efficient service to others unsanitary, ill-regulated and willing to send girls to disorderly houses. "Aliens whose countrymen are prosperous and interested are protected. Others, such as the Armenians and Greeks, while needing help, find it almost impossible to obtain. . . . The commission also finds a lack of co-operation among socie-

ties for the protection of aliens and of co-ordination of their work, with consequent disadvantages to the aliens and a waste of money and effort." There is only limited supervision by the Ellis Island authorities and none by the state.

Much intelligent work has been done in educating alien children, but only a beginning has been made for adults. Superintendent Maxwell is hampered by insufficient funds. A tremendous effort should be put forth to adapt the public schools to aliens of all ages, as the chief means of

Americanization. Civics should be taught insistently, on a practical basis such as would, for instance, acquaint aliens with the municipal and sanitary ordinances. Unconscious violations of these furnish a large share of the "crimes" in our city statistics—such "crimes" as peddling without a license by a man whose peasant vocabulary never knew the word.

Thus the investigations of the commission are held to offer convincing proof of need for intelligent, just and sympathetic oversight of the alien population



JILL CAME STUMBLING AFTER.

which "occupies in many respects a distinct if not an anomalous position." The commission recognizes that in this country there is strong disinclination "to the granting of special privileges to or withholding general rights from any class of the population. . . . It may be said that laws which adequately protect the citizen are equally effective for the alien. The commission believes that its investigations do not support this contention." Not alone because the alien has a hard time of it, because he is kicked and cuffed and robbed and debauched—but from a selfish viewpoint as well, oversight is necessary. "The alien of today is the citizen of tomorrow," and it behooves the state to see to it that he is made a good citizen, as quickly as may be, and that along with its forests and soils and streams, it conserve its men—husbanding their moral, social, artistic and economic resources.

This is not an entirely new form of legislation, for the state had recognized such duties and written them into laws before the national government stepped in. For a time the two worked jointly, but since 1890 the federal authorities have been in sole charge, until the alien lands at the Battery. There, on the threshold of the new country, it leaves him, a brass-buttoned official pushing him impatiently into the street out of the way of those crowding behind. The government, moreover, is concerned chiefly with admission or rejection, giving little effective attention to distribution, education and protection.

The report is signed by all the members of the commission except one. Mr. Whitney's dissent is based on unwillingness to create another state bureau, performing special services for a special class; and on the ground that existing laws, state departments and private or-

ganizations are sufficient to meet the situation. That they have not met it, the report shows in its recital of abuses. The proposed department, with its chief, his assistants and interpreters, the right to subpoena witnesses, opportunity to watch the labor market, to discriminate among applications for workmen, to adjust man and job, all, as the report points out, in close co-operation with existing agencies, is promising.

The Immigration Commission, like the Commission on Courts of Inferior Criminal Jurisdiction whose preliminary report was reviewed in a recent issue,¹ is a conspicuous example of Governor Hughes's skill in calling for advice from the best sources. The commission represents professional and commercial experience, the settlements, the State Department of Labor and organized labor. In five months, with a modest appropriation, it has made an investigation and produced a report interesting, convincing and well written. It is noteworthy not only for its statements, but for its sensible omissions, such as avoiding the mooted question of restriction, which is a federal matter and entirely without its scope. Probably for the same reason it omits reference to postal savings banks which offer a promising means of improving or driving out dishonest private banks.²

The members of the commission are: Louis Marshall, New York, chairman; Frances A. Kellor, Brooklyn, secretary; Philip V. Danahy, Albany; Charles W. Larmon, Salem; Marcus M. Marks, Gino C. Speranza, Lilian D. Wald, Edward D. Whitney, New York; Frank Julian Warne, executive secretary; Walter E. Weyl, statistician.

¹*Charities and The Commons*, Feb. 20, 1909. Price 10 cents.

²*The Foreigner and His Savings*, Peter Roberts, *Charities and The Commons*, Jan. 30, 1909. Price 10 cents.

THE REMEDY FOR UNEMPLOYMENT

A SYMPATHETIC REVIEW OF THE MINORITY REPORT ON THE POOR LAW

JOHN MARTIN

NEW YORK

After three years of investigation the British royal commission on the condition of the poor has issued a report of staggering length and thoroughness which promises to become a classic document like its famous predecessor of 1834. Four of the most radical members, F. Chandler, a carpenter and a member of Labor's Cabinet, the parliamentary committee of the Trade Union Congress, George Lansbury, a radical socialist who has been identified with the most daring experiments in poor relief, the Rev. Russell Wakefield, rector of St. Marylebone and chairman of the Central (unemployed) Body of London and Mrs. Sidney Webb, the economist, have signed a valuable minority report, part II of which outlines the first well-rounded, carefully considered plan for resolving the whole problem of unemployment. The composition of this minority makes various of their findings and recommendations, hostile as they are to some supposed socialistic methods, the more impressive and convincing.

While their reasoning in parts, well fortified as it is with evidence, is applicable only to a nation overwhelmingly industrial, like Great Britain, and must be modified for America, where millions of acres cry for skilled tillage, yet, in proportion as eastern states turn from agriculture to manufacture, they must face the same problems as confront England and may find help avoiding her errors.

In spite of almost universal condemnation from 1834 down to the present day—a condemnation in which it concurs—this minority finds that able-bodied men in health in large numbers receive temporary outdoor relief as well as maintenance in general mixed poorhouses, a condition which

perpetually increases the area and the demoralization of the able-bodied pauperism. Even when work tests and severe deterrent treatment are applied they fail to reach the "cadgers" and the "work-shy," precisely the classes for which they are framed. All the poor law treatment of able-bodied, in fact, in Britain today, by providing mere subsistence, available just when demanded, "actually facilitates parasitic methods of existence, intermittent and irregular effort, and casual employment." A penal poor law for the able-bodied proves and must prove unworkable because extensive volunteer agencies "refuse to allow the destitute to starve or the homeless to remain at night without shelter," though such relief is "almost wholly useless for permanently benefiting the persons relieved." Even the labor homes and rural colonies which have been established, while they attain a certain measure of success, are unable to deal with more than a small fraction of the problem, in the absence of any detention colony for the "work-shy" and of any adequate outlet for those who have been regenerated.

Therefore the whole problem of able-bodied destitution should be systematically treated by the national government. Experiments in relief works, colonies of all kinds, and aided emigration have shown chiefly "how not to do it." The provision of work at wages by local authorities, always the most popular immediate demand when bands of unemployed parade the streets, is unqualifiedly condemned by these commissioners because "it affords no remedy and tends even to intensify the evil." It is not only so costly that it would really be cheaper for the taxpayers to give charity to the men direct, but, in practice, it is either diverted from the ordinary employes of

the local authorities or else abstracted from what would otherwise have gone to the regular employes of contractors for public works; with the result, in either case, of creating as much unemployment as it relieves and thus throwing the cost of relieving the distress upon other wage earners.

Worse still. Work at wages, given for a few days or a few weeks at a time, tends actually to promote the disastrous under-employment characteristic of some industries and positively encourages employers and employes to acquiesce in intermittent employment rather than to arrange regular work at weekly wages.

In this "casualness" of employment—under-employment as the report labels it—the commissioners find the main cause of pauperism. This outcome of their investigations, they say, "was all the more impressive in that it was not what we anticipated." All their enquirers came, without concert, "to the same conclusion that of all the causes or conditions predisposing to pauperism, the most potent, the most certain and the most extensive in its operation was this method of employment in odd jobs." Contrary to expectation they did not find that insanitary conditions of living, low wages, long hours, drunkenness, injurious though they one and all are, created pauperism in any marked degree so long as they were combined with reasonable regularity of employment. Railway porters, lowly paid but regularly employed, contribute only infinitesimally to pauperism. Even of agricultural laborers, the worst paid of all workers, the same is true, while, though heavy drinking is prevalent among miners, iron and steel workers and boilermakers, those trades do not contribute largely to pauperism. On the other hand, "where high earnings and short hours and healthy conditions are combined with the method of casual employment—as is the case with some sections of wharf and river-side laborers, and workers around furnaces and gasworks—here we find demoralization of character, irregularity of life, and a constant recruiting of the pauper army."

A chronic over-supply of casual labor

is produced by the method of hiring casual workers. Each employer keeps a "stagnant pool" of laborers around his works, containing as many men as he will want on his busiest day. Spare men on any day don't go to other places either for fear of missing a chance where they are known and of losing the favor of the foreman or because they know that other "stands" are provided with enough men. And busy times do not coincide at different "stands." Thus it happens that at Liverpool, for example, there are 15,000 dock laborers, all of them chronically under-employed, ready for work which never, on the busiest day, needs more than 10,000. That is not all the fault of the employers, for a number of men object to regular and continuous work and "will leave relief works after a few days because they are tired of it." So that the philanthropist's device of "sharing work," a device which, having an air of brotherliness, is favored often by masters and men, really enlarges the circle of under employment and increases the evil it tries to cure.

Closely related to under employment is discontinuous employment, jobs with intervals of idleness between, such as characterize the building trades and seasonal trades.

Essential to the healing of this inflamed condition is an efficient national system of labor bureaus through which exclusively all casual and discontinuous labor must be engaged. Then, by dovetailing one job with another and one seasonal trade with another, continuous employment for those who are most efficient in the various branches can be assured and, since all laborers needing work will be registered, the number for whom there is no job will always be known.

Continuous employment for some who are now under-employed means no employment for a remainder. Simultaneously, therefore, provision must be made for the absorption of the surplus. One of the most prolific sources of casual labor, with all its train of ills, is the employment of boys in occupations which afford them no industrial training and which, whilst paying them relatively high wages during youth, leave them stranded

at manhood. Neither boy, parent nor employer can cope with this difficulty. It can be conquered only by the community. We must shorten the hours of boys' labor and require them to spend the hours set free in physical and technological training. From fifteen to eighteen years of age the city boy should spend thirty hours a week at work and thirty hours at an institute. In the country the training could perhaps be concentrated in the dull winter months. Girls also, to whom industrial work is mostly a "blind alley," with marriage at the end, should similarly be released compulsorily up to eighteen years of age for thirty hours a week for physical training and for study of household economy. Such measures would both increase the demand for adult workers and check the supply of casual labor.

Another means of absorbing the surplus is the reduction of the hours of labor, especially on railways, both steam and electric, where inhumanly long hours prevail in Britain, and where reduction of hours could not be balanced, as it is usually, by greater intensity of effort.

Since the greater part of the industrial work of wives and mothers is caused, not by any craving of the women to leave their home duties (mark it well, ye advocates of woman's work) but by the chronic under-employment of the men, the suppression of under-employment would cause considerable voluntary withdrawal of women from industry and leave vacancies to be filled by men.

Though public relief works aggravate the evils they try to relieve, public bodies can help "regularize the demand" for labor by adopting a ten years' program for all kinds of public works and by accentuating their present sound tendency to execute these works in the recurrent

periods of bad trade. Upon these works men would be hired in the ordinary way because their services were wanted and without any regard to whether or not they "are out of a job."

Still there would be, however, a residuum of men and women in distress from want of work, a heterogeneous assortment of individuals, each one a "human problem." The first requisite is that all such persons "should be provided with maintenance, so that they and their families may be kept in health and strength." In addition, each one must be medically examined and tested and put into training so that when, eventually, there are openings for them "they may return to work in better health, with more regular habits, and—awakened faculties of body and mind." Rich men go to Muldoon's to be braced anew, poor men should go to a state Muldoon's.

Crowning the whole system, says the report, must be a detention colony, where inmates are treated for a morbid state of mind and body, which makes them incapable of filling a useful place in the industrial world.

Is this elaborate scheme Utopian? "Not at all," answers this report, "no more Utopian than it seemed a century ago to dispose of the sewage of London hygienically. Not more Utopian than first appeared the picture of millions of children emerging every morning from their homes, washed and brushed, traversing street, road and lonely woodland, toddling o'er fell and moor, to present themselves at schools where each finds an individual place with books, blackboards and teachers all provided. What has been effected in the organization of public health and public education can be effected, if we wish it, in the public organization of the labor market."



PROPOSED CIVIC CENTER, DENVER; BRISCOE AND HEWITT, ARCHITECTS.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Department Editor

After a long absence, to come back to the editorial sanctum—if a department can be said to have a sanctum—is to find it chuck full of interesting material. Newspapers and reports are stacked around until the room looks like a mail car, and we must fill many a scrap basket with wrappers and envelopes to get at even the titles. But long before we have done that, a very significant fact stands out—the immensity of the civic improvement movement. It reaches into every nook and cranny of the United States—and in one good-sized pile every bit of matter has a foreign stamp; it reaches all sorts and conditions and ages of people and it seems to embrace almost all kinds of subjects. To make in this April department a worthy beginning for the new volume there can be no more theorizing on the editorial threshold; we must get to the sanctum's contents. Only there is this to say: The department appreciates the wide co-operation it is receiving; it is glad of every item sent in; and though some may have to wait long for their turn in print, and others may never be printed, yet all are welcome. And editors are such whimsical beings that it is always worth while to send them things, for you never can tell what they will choose.

DENVER'S CIVIC CENTER

The civic center proposed for Denver is now practically assured. The photograph on this page is of a drawing of an imaginary view to show how it will look from the state capitol, looking west. The cost of the property to be acquired is \$1,500,000, and will be borne by the East Denver park district. The plan contemplates the sale of the present County Court House, and from the proceeds the construction of a new county and city building, which will be the structure shown at the end of the vista. The building forward and just to the right of it is the new Public Library,

already erected, and the building behind that is the new United States Mint, also constructed.

The now almost certain realization of this civic center, which promises to be one of the most effective in the world, will complete a swift and interesting course of civic evolution. On the appointment of an Art Commission, an eastern student of city planning was engaged to spend a couple of weeks in Denver and prepare a statement about the city's improvement possibilities. This was three years ago. His report laid great stress on the chance for a striking civic center, with the capitol as its crown. The plan as outlined made use of the present county building, tying that into the scheme with the capitol. In many quarters the idea was received with the greatest enthusiasm. As it would be necessary to expend for property three times as much as under the plan now contemplated, a bond election was called. By a very narrow margin the bonds were defeated. But though Denver thus lost the chance to create a center which, as many thought, would be ideal in its proportions and in its union of two awkwardly distinct streets systems, the imagination of the people had been so fired that the project would not down. At this juncture Frederick MacMonnies, the sculptor, came to Denver, in connection with some private work, and he proposed swinging the axis of the suggested mall a little to the south, so as to bring it through cheaper property. It was found that this plan would save three million dollars, and the city would still get so striking an effect that there would be no realization of an aesthetic loss from a strictly ideal plan. This suggestion was turned over to a firm of local architects, Briscoe and Hewitt, and by them the scheme now about to be realized was evolved. The whole story is suggestive and interesting.

NEW ENGLAND'S CONSCIENCE

There was a great "booster" dinner in Providence a few weeks ago. Twenty-five hundred men were at the tables, making it the largest trade dinner, it is said, that was ever held in America. But a letter states that the most wonderful thing about the dinner was the spirit of high and worthy civic idealism. The braggadocio and self-complacency familiar at such events was subordinated, says the correspondent, to discussion of those other qualities by which "a better measure of a city's excellence and usefulness are determined, and so I believe Providence set an example worthy of consideration." In Boston there was being held about that time a wonderful series of revival meetings. At the closing meeting the evangelist touched on civic affairs, and as he concluded his address he asked all those who henceforth proposed to give of their time, of their money, and of themselves for the betterment of municipal conditions to rise and say so. Ten thousand arose, and the "I will" was a roar.

DEATH OF GENERAL PALMER

In the death last month of General William J. Palmer, Colorado Springs lost not only a great man and a rich man, but also a good man, and one deserving of very high place in civic improvement annals. With all he was the most modest of men. He was a poet, in the old sense that poets were seers; he created the city of Colorado Springs, on a barren prairie; on a twenty-four acre tract of sage bush and cactus, he dreamed that a beautiful college should rise, and lo! through his means, the college is there to-day. As the father,—and later the wonderful fairy-god-father—of Colorado Springs, his gifts to that city included, aside from institutions and their sites, the following: Palmer Park, 693 acres; Monument Valley Park, 210 acres; two small parks, aggregating eight acres; North Cheyenne Canon, 400 acres; the park from the hotel to the station, ten and one-half acres; the Manitou boulevard; the boulevard and *paseo* to Palmer Park; the Bear Creek and North Cheyenne roads, the Seven Falls and Crystal Park trails; the parking of a part of Cascade avenue—a total of 1,343 acres of donated parks and of 85 miles of boulevards, drives and trails. And this is not the whole story, for he gave not simply the land but the finished park and drive. On one park alone it is estimated that he expended a million dollars on improvements, to make his gift to the city complete. It was his to have beautiful dreams, with the means to bring them to pass.

CIVIC CO-OPERATION

Poughkeepsie, N. Y., has just added to its parks one of considerable size in the heart of the city. It has much natural beauty and had been well developed as a former private

estate. A rather interesting situation arose with regard to this park, and it has been admirably handled. As is frequently the case when a city acquires a conveniently located new park, a number of societies, each doing good work and each believing its own work of the utmost importance for local betterment, desired that a portion of the tract be dedicated to its purposes. There seemed to be danger that they would soon be fighting one another, and that the societies and the park would suffer in consequence. Through the initiative of an individual, representatives of the various interests were brought together, and after consultation a joint report was prepared for submission to the Board of Public Works, which controls the new park. This report recommended a certain apportionment and use of the new park, and the board, recognizing the weight of the co-operative recommendation, has promised to adopt it as far as possible. The bodies represented at the conference were the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the Playground Association, the Daughters of the American Revolution, and the Board of Education. The opinion is expressed in the report that private generosity will assist the board by providing the means with which to carry out some of the recommendations. These include, among other things, an athletic ground, a playground for children, and school gardens. It is proposed that the athletic ground be available afternoons from the close of school until about five o'clock and on Saturday mornings for school boys; and that on Saturday afternoons, and from about five until dark, it shall "be at the disposal of the working people who have been in factory and store during the day." A committee is proposed to arrange dates for match games without admission charges.

FRONT YARD PLANTING

The Springfield *Republican*, which has always been greatly interested in the beautifying of the city, has offered this spring \$200 in prizes for the best displays of flowers and plants in the front yards of the residents of Springfield, during the coming summer and fall. The Springfield Amateur Horticultural Society has formulated the plans and will conduct the contest. There are to be thirty-five prizes, and as lots of different sizes are to be in different classes, and as the improvement effected during the season is to be a great factor, the comparatively poor citizen with a small garden will have just as good a chance as the wealthy citizen with a large garden. Allowance will also be made for the handicaps inherent in certain locations. The following extract from the suggestions of the committee is worth repeating:

"On a lot of fifty feet, the house is usually within twenty feet of the sidewalk. Small grounds like this should never have shrubs dotted over them or be cut up with beds, as this makes the front yard look cluttered. All

planting, unless it be of trees, should be close to the house in a way to cover the underpinning as much as possible, or on the line between lots. Shrubs in the background, with hardy herbaceous plants, bedding plants and annuals in front, are most desirable. If you use more than one color, avoid those that clash, such as several shades of red. Use enough white to bring out the mixture. The massing of several plants of one color is most effective. If you use yellow, have the plants dwarf, and in the front; if blue enters into your planting, that should be at the farthest point. Avoid straight lines as far as possible; graceful curves give more natural effect and a better perspective."

FINE ARTS COUNCIL

The editor of *The Architectural Record*, discussing at length in the March number of that magazine the National Fine Arts Council appointed by Mr. Roosevelt and the recent Newlands bill for the creation of a Fine Arts Department of the central government, explains the matter so well that considerable extracts may be quoted. Mr. Roosevelt's action in appointing the council was denounced by his opponents as illegal. Says the article: "It is nothing of the sort. . . . The order merely means that administrative officials, subject to the president's authority, shall take the expert advice of the council before acting on any matter involving a question of aesthetic propriety. If in any particular case those officials are acting by virtue of a law which leaves them no discretion, they must, of course, merely do what Congress directs, but wherever they have discretion they will be obliged to seek expert advice." As to the bill to create a fine arts department, the editor admitted that it probably had no chance to pass as it "implies a violation of the traditional American way of dealing with such matters." The measure "would have the support of substantially every inhabitant of the United States possessing any intelligent interest in the fine arts; but there are not many such people. There is little or no popular recognition in this country of the necessity or authority of expert supervision of all action involving questions of aesthetic values. A body of legislators, which would be willing to pay thousands of dollars for the very best engineering advice about the construction of a bridge or a dam, complacently ignores the best expert advice in respect to a design or the location of a building, even when it can be had for nothing." This puts the matter more strongly and pessimistically than this department would have put it, for we believe that such popular appreciation has grown very much in the last few years; but there still is much more truth in it than is desirable, and to obtain a fine arts department for the government there will be needed a long and patient agitation by those who do believe in it.

The editor, in further interesting discus-

sion, notes that from 1825 until about 1880 "public art in the United States was practically dead." During this long period there was available for the public works no expert aesthetic taste that deserved to be consulted. It has developed rapidly since then, but the majority of congressmen are not in close enough touch with artistic affairs to realize this. In one sense the condition, he points out, is not a bad one for our art. "In the future, if American art and architecture want more emphatic and remunerative recognition, there is but one way to obtain it, and that is the same old way of continuing to deserve it. The situation of the arts in this country is such that they cannot count upon any preference which they do not clearly and substantially earn. . . . As long as this condition lasts, it will at least keep artists on their mettle"—it will not encourage degeneration.

MUNICIPAL ART, CITY PLANNING

There is to be held in New York from May 3 to May 16, a joint exhibition of municipal art and city planning. It is to be under the auspices of the Municipal Art Society and of the Committee on Congestion of Population in New York, and will be held in the Twenty-second Regiment Armory. It promises to be a very interesting and suggestive exhibition. A conference will be a feature of its opening days.

MINNEAPOLIS SEEKS PURE WATER

For twenty years Minneapolis has been trying to decide on the best method of getting pure drinking water. During that time everybody has known that the water has been impure. The Health Department has consistently warned the people against its use and private water companies have flourished and waxed fat. It is estimated that all the way from \$250,000 to \$500,000 is spent annually by the consumers who are able to pay for spring or distilled water brought to them in bottles or cans. At present the general supply is taken from the Mississippi River, and as more industries planted themselves along the river and as the population grew, the water became more and more contaminated.

The water committee of the City Council decided that the best way to get at a solution was to appoint a citizens' committee. Accordingly a committee of seventeen representing various commercial and public improvement associations was selected, the representatives acting as appointees of their respective organizations. Joseph Chapman, Jr., vice-president of the Northwestern National Bank, was chosen chairman to settle the question. Sessions have been held three afternoons of the week and to them have been invited experts from all parts of Minnesota. They have given their opinions on the various proposals that have been made for a pure water supply—

sand filtration, mechanical filtration, artesian wells, Lake Superior supply, Mille Lacs supply, etc. The commission has already asked the Legislature to give the city right to issue a million dollars' worth of bonds to be used as a beginning in carrying out any plan that may be finally decided upon.

PLAYGROUNDS IN MINNEAPOLIS

A city playground commission has been organized in Minneapolis to study the whole question of playgrounds, with reference to present and future needs of the city. The commission was appointed by J. E. Northrup last December when he was still president of the Minneapolis Park Board, but it did not organize formally until March 11, when Lester Elwood, a prominent business man, was made president and Mrs. T. G. Winter, president of the Minneapolis Woman's Club, secretary-treasurer.

Committees were appointed on present provisions and plans of Minneapolis Boards, etc.; provision and plans in other cities; needs of Minneapolis with reference to the future; legal aspects; best form or organization to further future playground development; finance.

BETTER BOSTON PLANNED

Boston is heading off a possible "Pittsburgh Survey" and has adopted as its slogan,

"Boston—1915. The finest city in the world." Six years is a pretty short time in which to carry out the comprehensive program adopted at the first meeting called by a few of the leading citizens of the city. But those back of the movement are starting ahead in earnest. Headquarters for "Boston 1915" have been established at 20 Beacon street, and the fact that 400 attended the organization meeting in the City Club shows that there is real interest in the project.

It is not alone for a more beautiful city that the plan provides. It includes expert accounting of the city finances, an understanding of waste and losses, "the best public health body," careful accounting of human resources, better relations between city and employes, the extension of present and introduction of new enterprises, the study and betterment of New England as a whole, the organization of a great system of public education, an intelligent system of transportation, a physically perfect city, the establishment of neighborhood centers with regular courses of lectures, the extension of public library branches, more music for public centers and pension plans for incapacitated workers. The organization meeting was called by Edward A. Filene, James L. Richards, James J. Starrow, Louis D. Brandeis, George S. Smith and Bernard J. Rothwell. Every branch of social and civic endeavor in the city is asked to join in this movement to make Boston "the finest city in the world."

TUBERCULOSIS

PHILIP P. JACOBS, Department Editor

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION TO MEET

The fifth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis will be held in the New Willard Hotel, Washington, D. C., from May 13 to 15. The program will be divided into sections, some of which will meet simultaneously. The sections with their respective chairmen are, advisory council, Alexander M. Wilson; sociological, John M. Glenn; clinical and climatological, Dr. Lawrason Brown; pathological and bacteriological, Dr. A. S. Warthin; surgical, Dr. Rudolph Matas; tuberculosis in children, Dr. John H. Lowman; Dr. George M. Kober of Washington is chairman of the local committee of arrangements.

PROGRESS IN PORTO RICO

Already the Spanish exhibition of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis which has been touring Porto Rico for the past six weeks, is producing results. The Legislative Assem-

bly of the island has passed three laws which provide for the careful study of tuberculosis, as well as for the treatment of indigent cases of this disease. One of the laws appropriates \$22,800 to be expended under the director of health, charities and corrections. \$13,800 of this sum is to provide for treatment of indigent cases recommended to the director by the Anti-Tuberculosis League of Porto Rico. The other \$9,000 is to establish and maintain seven state tuberculosis dispensaries in the largest cities of the island. Each of the dispensaries will have sufficient nurses for home visiting. One of the other acts relates to the establishment of a "tropical and transmissible disease service," which bureau is to conduct an educational campaign against communicable diseases, particularly uncinariasis (tropical anaemia) and tuberculosis. By the third act, the commissioner of education is instructed to provide material for teaching the salient facts concerning the prevention of tuberculosis and uncinariasis in the public schools.



FREE HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTIVES, WHITE HAVEN, PA.

WHITE HAVEN'S REPORT

Reports submitted by the treasurer and secretary of the Free Hospital for Poor Consumptives at White Haven, Pa., show that the sanatorium admitted 648 cases during the year 1908, and has at present 212 cases. In one year, the enormous total of 218,560 quarts of milk and 438,360 eggs were consumed. More than \$20,000 has been spent during the year in building, while maintenance has cost \$84,000. The hospital faces a deficit of \$14,000. After June 1, it will have no more free beds.

HALF MILE OF PUBLICITY

Consumption is receiving nearly one-half mile of publicity a week, is the unique statement made by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. According to some recent statistics compiled by that body, the various newspapers of the United States printed articles concerning tuberculosis, which, when measured, amounted to over 50,000 column inches of space in two weeks.

The investigation which the national association conducted included all the daily and weekly newspapers throughout the United States as well as some of the larger journals and magazines. In the two weeks taken as a standard, it was found that 51,557 column inches of space were devoted to the subject. If all this matter were gathered together at one time, it would make a newspaper the ordinary size of 369 pages printed solid, without any advertisements. If it were arranged in one long chain, it would make a single column of four-fifths of a mile long and two and one-quarter inches wide.

BALTIMORE'S MUNICIPAL NURSES

In response to the appeal of the Maryland Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, seconded by the Federated Charities, the Federated Jewish Charities, the St. Vincent de Paul Society, the Instructive Visiting Nurse Association and various philanthropic and commercial organizations of Baltimore, the Board of Estimates of that city, has made an appropriation of \$1,500 out of the contingent fund for the Health

Department of the city to employ two nurses whose duties shall be to supervise the work of the sub-division of fumigation of the department in all houses and apartments previously occupied by consumptives. The appropriation is only for the rest of the present fiscal year, ending in July. At the time the appropriation was made, the commissioner of health stated to the Board of Estimates that he would include in his budget for 1910 a much larger amount for the employment of nurses. The intention is that as soon as possible the city shall undertake the entire supervision of registered consumptives in their homes, which work has been carried on by the voluntary activities of the Maryland association and the Instructive Visiting Nurse Association. Other cities in the United States now employing nurses to supervise consumptives at home are: Louisville, Jersey City, Cincinnati, Carlisle, Pa.; Allegheny, Pa.; Richmond, Va.; Peoria, Ill.; Oakland, Cal.; Los Angeles, Savannah, Columbus, Ohio; Indianapolis, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Yonkers, Woonsocket, Oklahoma City, Rome, N. Y., Schenectady, Boston, New York, St. Louis, Cleveland, Toledo, Dayton, and Springfield, Ohio.

PRIZES FOR STAMP DESIGNS

The design for the 1909 Christmas stamp to be used in the crusade against tuberculosis has been thrown open to public competition by the American Red Cross, which offers a series of cash prizes, \$100, \$50, \$25, and several of \$10 in a contest ending May 15. Besides the three main awards, prizes of \$10 will be given for other designs, not to exceed ten in number, to be retained by the Red Cross as its property. Designs may be submitted in two or three colors, the ground-work not being considered an applied color. It is preferred that the background of the stamp shall be white, and that the emblem of the Red Cross appear prominently in the design. The Red Cross is a Greek cross, made up of five equal squares, and this proportion must be strictly observed in the designs submitted. The wording is to be "American Red Cross, 1909, Merry Christmas, Happy New Year." The finished size of the stamp shall be seven-eighths of an inch square. The designs submitted may

be larger, but must not exceed three inches square. The name of the artist must be written on the back of the design, but must not be visible anywhere in the design or on the face thereof.

Designs may be submitted to Charles L. Magee, secretary American Red Cross, State War and Navy Department Building, Washington, D. C., or to the secretary of any Red Cross state branch. The competition closes at 6 P. M. May 15. The designs will be examined by an associate committee of artists, and a public exhibition will probably be held afterwards in Washington. The committee which formulated the plan consists of Miss Mabel T. Boardman, Washington, D. C.; Miss Emily P. Bissell, Delaware; Mrs. William K. Draper, New York; Major General George W. Davis, Washington and Joseph A. Steinmetz, Pennsylvania.

AN EASTER STAMP

The Michigan State Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis has decided to issue an Easter tuberculosis stamp, similar to the one issued by the National Red Cross. The stamp exhibits prominently the blue star, the emblem of the association. There will be two classes of stamps, one for one cent, and the other for five cents. The latter is embossed.

MARYLAND'S SANATORIUM

The second annual report of the Board of Managers of the Maryland Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Sabillasville, shows that the institution, commenced in 1906, has now a

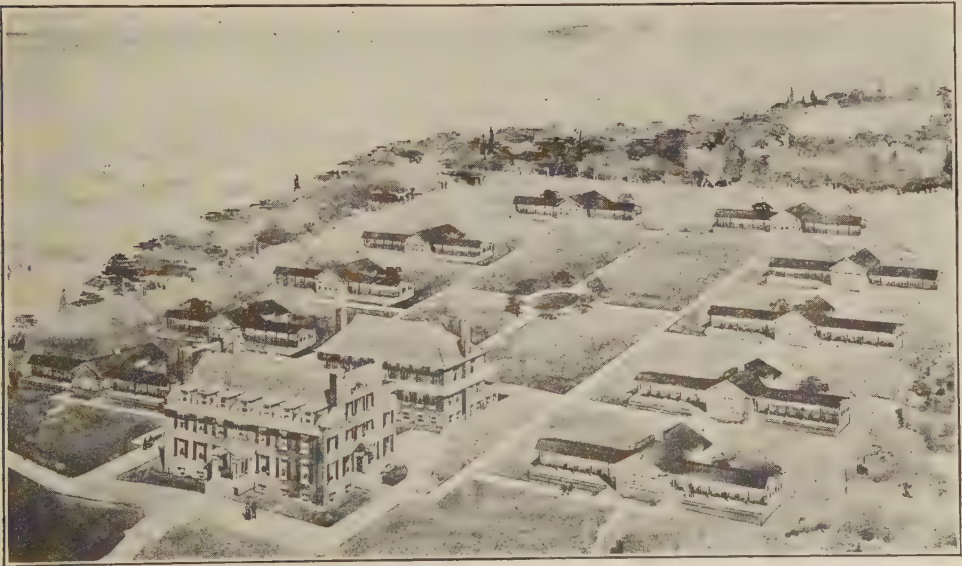
capacity of 180 out of the 250 for which the plans called. The institution when completed will cost about \$300,000. The eight pavillions now finished house 160 patients and the infirmary has accommodation for twenty more. All the administration and service buildings have been completed.

CHANGES IN KENTUCKY

By the adoption of amended articles of incorporation, the name of the Kentucky Anti-Tuberculosis Association has been changed to the Louisville Anti-Tuberculosis Association. The work of the newly christened organization will be confined to Louisville and Jefferson county, where active steps for an educational work have already been undertaken under the new plan.

The Tuberculosis Dispensary operated since its institution by the Kentucky association has been taken over by the Board of Tuberculosis Hospital and enlarged, and is now doing more effective work than ever before. The new municipal sanatorium of the Board of Tuberculosis Hospital is now under construction, and after its completion the dispensary is expected to prove a very valuable adjunct in securing eligible patients for treatment at the hospital. The new sanatorium, which will begin operation with 150 beds is to be maintained by the municipality and the county.

At an early date an organization will be effected for work through the state. The form will probably be either that of a Kentucky association or federation of associations in the state. There are at the present time only two other organizations in the



MARYLAND STATE SANATORIUM, SABILLASVILLE.

state, one at Lexington and one at Latonia, both of which are putting forth their main efforts in an educational way through the dissemination of literature and through lectures.

EMPLOYERS GIVE TREATMENT

Employers in more than twenty manufacturing concerns in Worcester county, Mass., employing over 12,000 hands, have agreed to pay for three months' treatment at the Rutland State Sanatorium of any of their workers contracting tuberculosis. Some of the firms have also offered to pay to the families of persons in the sanatorium the regular wages of the patient, while he is incapacitated. Dr. Melven G. Overlock of Worcester, himself a large manufacturer, has been the leader in securing this co-operation of employers.

ALL GEORGIA CAMPAIGN

After three months of stirring times in Florida, the tuberculosis exhibit of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis has gone to Georgia, and has begun its "all Georgia campaign." The exhibit opened in Atlanta, where it was greeted with great enthusiasm.

In connection with the Florida campaign several "one day institutes" on tuberculosis held in different cities, where it was found impossible to send the exhibit, proved of great value. A unique but helpful result of the work in Florida was the organization of a "Don't Spit League" among the soldiers at the Pensacola Navy Yard at Fort Barancas.

BRAZIL IN THE FIGHT

Among the appropriations in the Brazilian budget may be noted something over \$50,000 for various institutions engaged in fighting the spread of tuberculosis in Brazil. This national appropriation is supplemental to state and municipal appropriations for the same purpose, and is designed to aid particular institutions which otherwise are without necessary support. The fact that one person out of every five dying in Rio de Janeiro, a city of the best sanitary conditions, dies of tuberculosis, indicates the need of aggressive action.

WAKING UP IN NEWARK

The Committee of One Hundred organized recently in Newark, has procured temporary headquarters on Cedar street, and has engaged Fred J. Wort as executive secretary. A campaign of education will be begun at once. A study is being made of the deaths

from tuberculosis for the past five years, with a view to determining the "plague spots" of the city. The Committee of One Hundred has superseded the former Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis. The chairman is ex-Governor Franklin J. Murphy. The Health Department is co-operating with the committee, and has passed a stringent registration ordinance, requiring that tuberculosis cases be reported and giving the health authorities power to isolate in hospitals all cases that do not comply with the regulations.

BAR POOR CONSUMPTIVES

As a result of the recent action of the Charity Conference Committee of Los Angeles, formal notice will be served on charitable organizations and physicians in the East and Southeast that indigents in advanced stages of tuberculosis, if shipped to Los Angeles county, will be promptly sent back to the points from which they came. For some time, it has been the practice of physicians and various organizations in the East to send dying consumptives to California, the Southwest, or Colorado. As no climate will cure such cases, if indigent, they at once become public charges. The Los Angeles organizations feel they are taking a measure which is not only self-protective but also humane to the patient. Since it has been demonstrated that climate is not an essential element in the cure of tuberculosis, there seems to be no need of shipping indigent cases thousands of miles away, when they stand a better chance for cure at home.

NEGRO LEAGUES IN SOUTH

A movement recently inaugurated by the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service for the purpose of organizing anti-tuberculosis leagues among the Negroes of the South is meeting with considerable success. State leagues have already been formed in Georgia and Virginia. The scheme, which is being carried out with the co-operation of the national association, has for its basis the rallying of the Negro's anti-tuberculosis efforts around his church. The plan contemplates a state league with local branches in connection with the various Negro churches, the pastor being selected in each community as the leader of the league.

An attractive certificate granting membership in the state league is given to each person joining a local league. The certificates state simple rules for the prevention of consumption, and are meant to be framed by the member and hung where he can always see them. Surgeon C. P. Wertenbaker of the Marine Hospital Service is engaged in organizing the state and local leagues.



KALAMAZOO TUBERCULOSIS CAMP.

KALAMAZOO'S CAMP

Kalamazoo, Mich., has had in operation since August a camp for tuberculous patients which is typical of the inexpensive but very effective little health plants which are springing up in every part of the country. Not a day passes, it is stated, but one of them is opened or announced.

Funds for the Kalamazoo camp and for the salary of the nurse were raised by subscription and by a "Blue Star Day," and already it has proved so successful that a permanently useful career is assured.

Interest in the tuberculosis campaign was first aroused at a public meeting which was addressed by Drs. Warthin, Jennings and Vaughn of the University of Michigan. Later a society was formed with Dr. Herman Ostrander, of Michigan Asylum for the Insane, as president, and Dr. David J. Levy as secretary.

NINETEEN ACRES FOR CAMPS

The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis has received from James M. Prendergast of that city the gift of nineteen acres of land, located in the suburbs of the city, near the Hyde Park line. The tract is well wooded and has a good water supply. It is valued at \$16,000. The association proposes to use it during the coming summer for day and night camps.

KANSAS CITY STIRRED

Forty-five thousand people attended the exhibit of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, which recently closed a ten days' stay in Kansas City, Mo. As a result of the exhibit, over 200 members were added to the Kansas City association, and the whole tuberculosis movement was given such a decided impetus, that the city authorities are taking action.

WANT A "SPIT WARDEN"

The tuberculosis committee of Paterson, N. J., is trying to persuade the city authori-

ties to appoint a special "spit warden" whose sole duty would be to look for violators of the anti-spitting ordinance. In St. Louis, where such officers have been employed for some time, the fines collected by these special policemen more than pay their salaries.

CLEVELAND WILL VOTE

An organized campaign in the interest of the bond issue for building a tuberculosis sanatorium is now in progress under the direction of the Anti-Tuberculosis League of Cleveland. The bond issue will be submitted to the taxpayers at a special election on April 20. The amount proposed is \$250,000, which will provide facilities for the care of 400 or more patients. A site has already been provided at Warrensville. Churches, lodges, labor unions, social clubs, and civic and philanthropic bodies of all kinds are electioneering for the bond issue.

PROVIDE TENTS AT HOME

The tuberculosis department of the King's Daughters Union of Moline, Ill., is carrying on an active work in that city. With funds raised from the sale of Red Cross stamps, the union will provide tents for tuberculous patients at one dollar a month including the furnishings where the patient desires it. A visiting nurse in co-operation with the Health Department will give Moline a comprehensive system of home treatment.

PHIPPS INSTITUTE NEW SITE

A new site for the Henry Phipps Institute for the Study, Treatment and Prevention of Tuberculosis has been purchased at Addison and Lombard streets, Philadelphia. Buildings will be erected at a cost of \$300,000.

ST. LOUIS'S SECOND COMMISSION

The bills of the first Tuberculosis Commission of St. Louis providing for a second commission and a complete municipal system of institutions have been vetoed by Mayor Wells.

VIRGINIA'S SANATORIUM

"Catawba Sanatorium" at Catawba, Roanoke county, Va., is the name of the new Virginia State Sanatorium for Incipient Tuberculosis, which has been opened. Dr. Robert E. Williams is the superintendent of the institution, which has been remodelled from buildings formerly used for summer resort purposes.

NOTES FROM THE FIELD

At a mass meeting held in Jamestown, N. Y., to arouse interest in the crusade against consumption, addresses were given in English, Swedish, Italian, and Albanian.

The first half year's work of the Municipal Tuberculosis Dispensary of Schenectady shows a wide range of activity and a large amount of positive good accomplished.

The Delaware Legislature has passed a bill providing a dispensary in each of the three counties of the state and appropriating \$15,000 for that purpose.

A feature of the tuberculosis exhibit which the St. Louis Society for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis is giving at 901 Olive street, is a model of the cells in prisons B, C and D of the Missouri State Penitentiary. The model is four by seven and one half feet wide, and about seven and one-half feet high. The doorway is but four feet high by two wide. There is no opening but the door.

Representative Bennett of New York has written a letter to President Taft suggesting that a vacancy in the classified civil service occasioned by tuberculosis should be filled by a member of the patient's family, such person, regardless of his standing on the list, to serve during the time the tuberculous patient is under treatment.

The Eudowood Sanatorium at Towson, Md., has opened a school for the special training of tuberculosis nurses. A similar school is conducted at the Free Hospital for Poor Consumptives, White Haven, Pa.

In a recent raid on the spitters of Poughkeepsie, the police arrested, among others, a prominent New York county assemblyman. A citizen who had previously been arrested

reported the policeman who had arrested him for spitting.

In addition to their Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Colorado Springs, the Modern Woodmen of America are also conducting an active educational campaign against consumption among their million members. 13.6 per cent of the death claims paid by this order last year were from tuberculosis.

Mrs. W. T. Bull of New York, widow of the late Dr. Bull, has announced that she will erect a special tuberculosis hospital as a memorial to her late husband.

The Post Office Department of Canada announces that it has under consideration a proposition to issue a special postal stamp in aid of the tuberculosis campaign.

The Jewish Consumptives' Relief Society, which has just completed five years of work, has grown from an organization starting with a dollar to one with an annual income of more than \$61,000.

Congress has granted \$375,000 for extensive improvements at the United States Army Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Fort Bayard, N. Mex.

According to a report of the Bureau of the Census recently issued, 11.2 per cent of all the deaths in the registration area were caused by tuberculosis.

A movement has been started in two New Jersey cities, Plainfield and Elizabeth, to raise money to conduct a day camp during the coming summer.

A bill has been introduced in the New York Assembly empowering the commissioner of agriculture of the state of New York "to lease farm lands and buildings thereon for the purpose of conducting experiments and investigations to ascertain the best methods of dealing with bovine tuberculosis, and making an appropriation therefor."

Owing to the objection of surrounding property owners, the Pasadena Health Camp has been removed to a tract of 240 acres situated at Millard's Canyon, four miles out of Pasadena.

A State Anti-Tuberculosis Association has been formed in North Dakota, with Dr. J. D. Grassick, state health officer, as president, and Mrs. E. P. Quain of Bismarck, as secretary.

THE DELINQUENT

SAMUEL J. BARROWS, Department Editor

THE NEW MINNESOTA STATE PRISON

For many years both Warden Henry Wolfer of the Minnesota State Prison and the Board of Control have felt the need of a new and better located prison. Warden Wolfer felt that the prison should be on a large tract of land a part of which should be operated as a farm. In 1905, after a few years of agitation, the Legislature passed an

item in the general appropriation bill for the purchase of a site. Final action was not secured, however, until an effective campaign had been made through the state. This was necessary to secure popular support for levying the tax to be imposed from year to year. The success of the work is seen in the Legislature's appropriation of \$2,250,000. From a description of the new prison, written by Warden Wolfer for the

Stillwater *Daily Gazette* the following account is condensed:

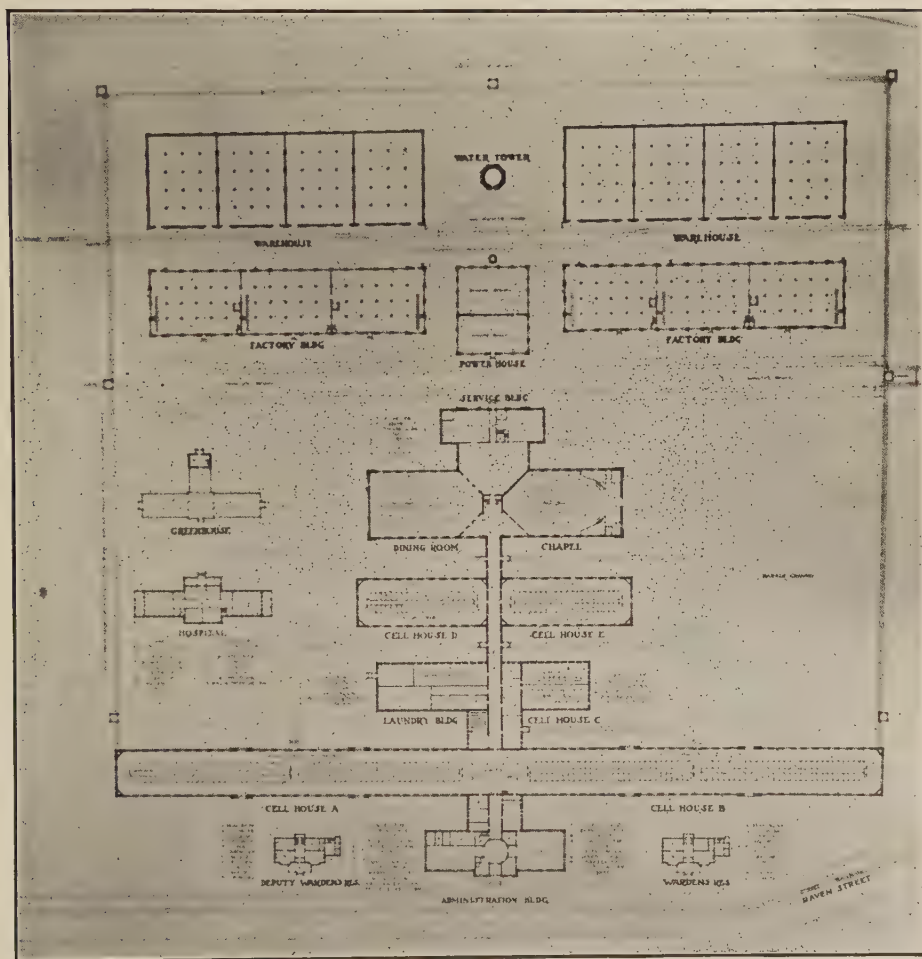
The new prison is located two and a half miles south of the old institution on a beautiful plateau overlooking the St. Croix river. The grounds have an elevation of about forty feet above the river. The prison farm contains 160 acres; the prison enclosure proper twenty-two acres. Water is furnished from springs flowing by gravity to the prison grounds. The supply from these springs averages nearly one and one half million gallons every twenty-four hours; probably about twice the quantity the prison will ever require. A larger reservoir of concrete will be constructed. The sewer and drain system is to be built on modern sanitary lines.

The walls on the north, west and south sides of the prison will be of re-enforced concrete with artistic panel facing and trim-

med with pressed brick. The prison yard will enclose twenty-two acres. On the east side the grounds will be enclosed by the administration building and the two large cell houses A and B, stretching 1,000 feet across the front of the grounds.

The location of the other buildings is seen by the ground plan which accompanies this article. It will be noted that while the two main cell blocks have an outside corridor, the supplementary cell houses D and E are to be built with the central corridors. The axis of the cell buildings and workshops runs north and south so that abundant sunlight is furnished on the east and west. The prison is to be fitted up with every convenience, including school rooms and lecture rooms.

The power plant is to be centrally located. The heating and ventilation of the buildings will be accomplished by means of a fan sys-



PLAN OF THE MINNESOTA STATE PRISON.

tem. Storage vaults with a capacity for two thousand tons of coal are provided. Railroad tracks and switches pass through the grounds from north to south.

Warden Wolfer says that the plans are in line with the best thought of modern prison architecture and that when completed the prison will be one of the best and most modern in the United States, if not in the world. The buildings will be plain, substantial and comfortable and strictly fireproof. All the laws and rules for obtaining the best hygienic and sanitary conditions will be carefully followed, and yet there will be no extravagant expenditure or unnecessary delay.

The warden thus sums up the advantages and prospects of the institution:

"When the new prison is completed and the farm machinery plant has reached the same stage of efficiency and organization as the twine plant, which is at its maximum of capacity and organization, the state will do a business aggregating probably not far from three million dollars a year. Upon this amount of business the state ought easily to realize a profit of \$300,000 a year, at least, until enough is made to handle the growing industry without borrowing money, and enough besides to pay back to the state all the money it appropriated to build the prison. If worked out along this line the benefits to the state and the taxpayers and to the unfortunate inmates, may be summed up as follows:

"First—The state will have solved the convict labor problem on a broad gauged and humanitarian basis, and in a more satisfactory manner than in any other state in the Union. It will result in the largest degree of mechanical training for the unfortunate convict at the minimum of competition with honest labor on the outside, in that the two industries selected are not carried on in our state.

"Second.—The products of this labor are handled and distributed for the benefit of the people and the taxpayers of our own state.

"Third.—The institution will have built itself; the industries will have sustained themselves during the period of their respective growths and development, so that in the end the new institution will be fully paid for and always more than self-sustaining.

"Fourth.—There will be a new, modern, up-to-date prison; a modern up-to-date twine factory, a modern up-to-date farm machinery plant, in which to house and employ all of the state's prisoners under modern, up-to-date methods, with funds to carry on the business without cost to the state or to its taxpayers."

THE PAROLE SYSTEM IN ILLINOIS

Two bills have been prepared by the Civic Federation of Chicago and submitted to the

Legislature to extend and systematize the parole law in that state. They provide for a board of parole. At present parole is granted by the Board of Pardons to which will be left, as heretofore, the duties pertaining to a pardoning body. The new law provides for the appointment by the government of three members of whom one at least shall be a lawyer. Each is to receive an annual salary of \$4,000 with \$1,000 additional for the president. The board is to sit every three months to hear applications for pardon and to make recommendations to the governor, but it is to meet every month as a board of parole. Under the existing law there is only one parole agent for each penitentiary. The pending bills would authorize the board of parole to appoint a chief parole agent and as many other agents, not exceeding one for each fifty paroled prisoners, as it deemed necessary. The parole agents, instead of the sheriffs in the various counties where paroled prisoners find employment, would be charged with the duty of reporting to the board on the conduct of these men.

If these bills pass, Illinois will have a larger number of parole officers than any other state. Local papers are raising the question whether the law makes adequate provision for the selection of proper persons for this important duty.

END OF CONVICT LEASE IN GEORGIA

When we remember that an English philanthropist, Oglethorpe, laid the foundations of Georgia and that the welfare and the reformation of prisoners had a large place in his benevolent ideas, it is the more regrettable that for forty years or more the state should have been afflicted by the lease system. But this abomination has at last come to an end. The readers of THE SURVEY were kept informed last year of the progress of the legislative investigation and of the final enactment of the law abolishing the system. This law has just gone into effect. The practice of leasing convicts was legalized slavery and illegal graft. The new law may not be an ideal one, but it is a great step in advance. It was absolutely necessary to put an end to the corruption which made the leases a source of profit to private contractors.

The weakness of the new regime is that convicts are turned back to county control to be worked on the road or other public works, but prisoners may be assigned from one county to another by application to the Prison Commission. County control in the North has proved utterly inefficient and it is not likely to prove wholly satisfactory in the South. It is, however, vastly better than turning prisoners over to private control. The new system went into operation April 1, and the convicts who were returned to the counties welcomed the new era with

hymns and prayers. Georgia in addition to its state farm is to have a central penitentiary, and is also to erect in different parts of the state suitable buildings on farm lands for the safekeeping and care of felons not worked by the counties.

PRISON CONGESTION IN NEW YORK

Sing Sing Prison is overcrowded. The same condition is reported at the Blackwell's Island Penitentiary where a recent census showed 1,119 men and eighty-three women. This is far above the average. Elmira Reformatory and the Workhouse at Blackwell's Island are also overcrowded. On the other hand the number of prisoners awaiting trial at the Tombs is the lowest in several years, being on March 27 but 500.

Judge Warren W. Foster, of the Court of General Sessions, who has had long experience in the criminal courts, of whose judges he is the dean, said in an interview with a reporter of the *New York World*:

"The fact that our prisons are overcrowded shows only this and nothing more: that the prison population is keeping pace *pari passu* with the growth of the country. More people, more criminals. But to the one who looks below the surface it shows also that

our system of penology is a failure, and that instead of punishing for crime and attempting to 'make the punishment fit the crime,' we should make the punishment work for the reformation of the offender.

"District-Attorney Jerome, in argument before me recently, said he believed no man was improved by imprisonment. He was right.

"The probation law, holding the offender in *terrorem*, is far more beneficent and effective in many cases. Most men of incurable criminal tendencies must be locked up as we chain up savage beasts, but the average first offender, if dealt with intelligently, can be reformed, as statistics and experience show.

"What happens to the average offender? He is indicted for a felony. To get rid of the case the court offers to accept a plea of misdemeanor. He is then sent to the penitentiary, where he is educated in crime, or sentence is suspended. The power to inflict sentence expires in a year. The court cannot inflict a sentence of more than a year, and the defendant is willing to take the chance. If he were convicted of a felony and had ten years of imprisonment suspended like the sword of Damocles over his head, he would be made to realize that crime should not be committed."

ORGANIZED CHARITY

FRANCIS H. McLEAN, Department Editor

CHICAGO RELIEF AND AID SOCIETY

The fifty-first annual report of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, that for 1908, covers a wide field, epitomized in a foreword headed Significant Events of the Year, a part of which is here printed.

"The work of the society increased over previous year by more than 100 per cent; 20,000 persons aided; \$68,400 spent in the work.

"Conferences of executives of different charities called by the society led to gathering information through the Association of Commerce as to the number of the unemployed and to the creation of the Business Men's Relief Committee.

"Co-operated with the Municipal Lodging House, the mayor and other public officials in working out plans for increasing facilities for the care of homeless men.

"Family men given relief through employment; streets cleaned; vacant lots made available for playgrounds.

"Mary Crane Nursery opened. Cares for children of working mothers, gives employment and instruction to women who must earn their living; nas diet kitchen which

dispenses diets to the sick and modified and pasteurized milk to delicate children.

"With the co-operation of President Busse of the County Board and Warden Happel, the society maintains a department for aiding convalescent persons leaving the Cook County Hospital; 1,342 persons were aided this year.

"Established a home for convalescent men and stranded men and boys.

"Joined with Bureau of Charities and County Agent in establishing a district office to care for the destitute of South Chicago.

"Extended co-operation with Tuberculosis Institute in providing diets of milk and eggs, in providing window and porch tents for people in the incipient stage of tuberculosis.

"Co-operated with the School of Civics and Philanthropy, the International Tuberculosis Congress and other educational agencies through exhibiting charts and other graphic material showing effect of accidents, tuberculosis, bad housing, etc., as causes of poverty.

"Summer work for sick babies developed; its educational side emphasized; plans for co-operating with health authorities and a



From the cover of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society Report.

larger joint campaign advanced. Maintained five summer playgrounds in congested districts for small children. Co-operated with various outing agencies in sending women and children to the country for vacations."

CHARITIES ENDORSEMENT IN SEATTLE

The Charities Endorsement Committee of Seattle has renewed activity with a vigor which bids fair to place it among the leaders. The plan of work presents interesting features worthy of examination by those studying the endorsement idea with reference to other cities.

The committee consists of Charles H. Black of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce, president; I. H. Jennings of the Seattle Merchants' Association, treasurer; Richard Hayter of the Manufacturers' Association of Seattle, secretary. All three are of course official representatives of their respective organizations but the committee itself is governed by by-laws of its own.

MR. HAYTER'S CONNECTION

Of peculiar interest to many eastern charity workers is the association of Mr. Hayter with this work. About eleven years ago he was serving in the New York Charity Organization Society as special agent for the investigation of charitable societies and insti-

tutions, his position being the forerunner of the present Bureau of Information. He also served for a time in the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, and was for several years in the old University Settlement group which helped build up the settlement with Mr. Reynolds as leader. The writer regrets that Mr. Hayter's connection with the work in Seattle indicates no return to the field as a professional, but is simply a voluntary service. The committee is fortunate, however, in possessing Mr. Hayter's skill together with the business sense of its other members.

Having a separate entity the committee proposes to raise its own funds for investigation and incidental expenses, the estimate being \$1,000. No larger individual contribution than \$2.50 yearly is desired.

Unlike other committees there is no semi-official connection with the Charity Organization Society. For local reasons it was deemed inadvisable to have any officer of the local society serve either as secretary or assistant secretary. The writer understands however, that this form of organization is not discredited in Seattle as not embodying the right principles to be followed in other cities.

The Seattle committee will not use the ordinary card endorsement but a subscription list which shall itself be endorsed with the signatures of its secretary and chairman. The heading of each list will indicate the total amount to be raised, the purpose, and the expiration of the endorsement. Endorsements must be renewed at periods of not over one year. Below appear the signatures of the collector and the president of the organization endorsed.

Each list is backed by an agreement signed by the president and secretary of the organization endorsed which reads:

"In consideration of the issuance of this endorsed subscription blank to the above mentioned charity, we, its president and secretary, hereby pledge ourselves and the charity we represent to observe strictly the following requirements of the Charities Endorsement Committee:

"1. That we will not lend or sell the name of the above mentioned charity to any promoter of charitable benefits, nor take any part in such pernicious methods of raising charitable funds;

"2. That we will not employ a solicitor, who upon investigation shall be shown to have a doubtful reputation;

"3. That we will not pay any solicitor more than fifteen per cent commission;

"4. That we shall request each donor to enter in ink on this blank the amount subscribed with his or her signature;

"5. That we will surrender this blank on proof of the violation of any of these provisions on the part of any representative of said charity; and

"6. That we will return this blank to the

committee at the date of expiration; or sooner if the amount stated on its face shall have been collected."

PROVISIONS OF THE BY-LAWS

The by-laws of the committee contain these general provisions:

"1. Each endorsed charity shall have a reputable board of trustees who shall take the full responsibility for securing financial support and who shall be able to show the committee proper accounts of all receipts and expenditures.

"2. No charity controlled by an individual rather than a board will be endorsed, it being considered that every charity appealing for support is a public trust.

"3. Children's institutions must meet these standards: (a) Every applicant for admission to the institution shall be carefully investigated and the results recorded on a proper form; (b) If it shall prove, either as a result of this investigation or upon further knowledge, that neither parent is fit to have future custody of the child, the managers of the institution shall have the legal guardianship vested in some responsible person; and (c) no child shall be admitted except upon examination by a physician, who shall certify that it be free from infectious disease unless the institution is provided with suitable means for the protection of the other inmates from contagion.

"4. For relief societies the requirements are: (a) To adopt an investigation blank satisfactory to the committee; (b) to investigate or have investigated in their homes all applicants before any but emergency relief is given; and (c) to re-investigate all pension cases each year."

The address of the committee is 802 Central Building.

WHERE MONOPOLY IS WRONG

The Joliet, Ill., *Republican* of March 12, is responsible for the statement credited to Supervisor John Herath that "Joliet has the best system" (with reference to charitable work), "in the state." Mr. Herath is ably assisted by the Joliet Woman's Aid Societies, which work in conjunction with him, notifying him of any cases they hear of and letting him investigate them. This and much more in the same article appear to have been the result of a stir made by a local minister urging the need of an associated charities. To this Supervisor Herath takes exception.

Now possibly workers in societies in Chicago, Jacksonville, Bloomington and elsewhere may be inclined to object to Joliet's strict monopoly of the blue ribbon for the best charity work in the state. Certainly Joliet seems to have attained a contented condition; for all of us in organized charity realize so many shortcomings in our work that we hesitate to speak in superlatives.

The newspaper later informs us that Su-

pervisor Herath is an expert, that he knows all the poor people in the city, that he would not even have to keep a "list" of them, except as a matter of record.

No one man, if he be ten times an expert, can do the charity work of a city like Joliet. It requires the co-operation of all the best brains in the city. It calls for thorough-going investigations, correspondence, definite planning; the most superficial work demands records, just as Mr. Herath's business requires accounts. No expert would pretend to keep such information in his head for even one family. There are ethics in records, as the writer has said elsewhere; without them no family is getting a square deal. It is ominous that Mr. Herath knows the poor so well. Are they the same families that he has known for years? If so where are the many which should have long ago gone up higher, as a result of careful planning and working on their cases? And where are the great preventive measures which have grown out of the work? Where the statistics regarding tuberculosis to stir up public feeling?

Without detracting the least from the sensible work which Mr. Herath has done, and realizing that the spread eagleism of the article may be the reporter's, it is respectfully submitted to him that his work cannot be the "best" because the "best" requires the active co-operation of many people through a society.

These humble suggestions would be capable of applications in many other places besides Joliet.

METHODISM AND ORGANIZED CHARITY

The Methodist Federation for Social Service has issued a pamphlet entitled *The Methodist Church in Organized Charity*, the text being written by J. W. Magruder, general secretary of the Baltimore Federated Charities. A convincingly significant introduction is printed in part:

"Of all people in Christendom the spiritual descendants of John Wesley ought to be the first to join hands with organized charity. To ignore it is to become apostate to the Methodist faith. The very first work of the original 'people called Methodists' in the Holy Club at Oxford was to visit the imprisoned, the sick, and the poor, and to introduce into their friendly visiting the 'method' which characterized everything they did and earned for them their name. Mr. Stead credits Wesley with having founded the first associated charities.

"Unfortunately American Methodists have not maintained this inherited position of leadership. In a recent poll of 1,012 social workers it was found that, of those who were identified with charity organizations, ninety-two per cent were members of churches, but that the Methodists, who in proportion to their membership should have supplied the largest quota, actually came

next to the last on the list of denominations represented. The Protestant Episcopal Church was entitled to only two per cent of the number, but had twenty per cent; the Presbyterian to five per cent, but had sixteen per cent; the Congregational to two per cent, but had sixteen per cent. The Methodist church should have had twenty per cent, but had only fourteen per cent. The Baptist church came last with only six per cent, when it should have had seventeen per cent. This disproportionate number of Methodists seems the more incongruous in view of the fact that organized charity has adopted the 'method' of which Wesley was an apostle, and elaborated it into a comprehensive system of constructive philanthropy."

After describing the three forms of relief, "emergency," "adequate," and "radical," in connection with "the parable of the good American," Mr. Magruder brings the lesson home in a few paragraphs on "organized love." The church is urged to look upon the charity organization society as much as a part of the church plant as is the parish house. Indeed in communities too small for a society, the church should assume the responsibility in a right way and do away with the present reprehensible methods, the giving of doles without investigation, without settled plan or principle, "without thought of rehabilitation of the beneficiary, . . . without enlisting relatives, friends, employers, benevolent individuals, the labor unions, the fraternal organizations . . ."

Other parts of the brochure are equally suggestive. Though its own membership in the ranks of organized charity workers may not be what it should be, certainly the future will tell a different tale for the Methodist Church. The Methodist Federation is the first national church body boldly to proclaim the associated charities movement as something which must be considered an integral part of every church, and especially of the Methodist Church.

DEEMER FRESH AIR FARM

To have won as defendant in a libel suit during the first year of its existence is another of the achievements of the Youngstown, Ohio, Charity Organization Society.

L. A. Woodard, chairman of the executive committee of the society, and superintendent for the William Tod Company, became convinced that the Deemer Fresh Air Home

located in the suburb of Boardman, where he resides, needed investigation. The enterprise was collecting money in Youngstown, claiming to care for children from that city and from Pittsburgh. The matter was presented to the Charity Organization Society and J. M. Hanson, general secretary, made a careful investigation as a result of which a suit for \$10,000 was instituted against Mr. Hanson.

In main the evidence introduced by the defense bore not only upon the physical conditions of the home but also upon the character of Deemer and his two daughters, Mrs. Ella Elbell and Lottie Deemer, who ran the place. The Youngstown Charity Organization Society is to be congratulated on a notable and righteous victory. The spirit of its board is not a surprising revelation to those who know the caliber of its members. Are there not other "homes" requiring similar treatment in various parts of the country? Certainly there are other boards ready to face even the vexation and trouble of a libel suit when a square issue of right or wrong like this is presented.

ORGANIZATION IN ATLANTIC CITY

A Charity Organization Society has recently been formed in Atlantic City. In spite of, perhaps because of, its reputation for wealth, the city has some serious charity problems. Here, as in Western health resorts, patients are sent by physicians to get light work while regaining their health. The hotels in Atlantic City need vigorous employes, and the patients, because they break down or fail to secure work, often are in desperate need of relief. There are also adventurers who come to trade on the wealthy visitors. Lastly there is a large colored population, often shiftless, which is sure to have irregular work for the long periods between seasons. Investigations are difficult because the large majority of those in want are non-residents. The community consequently found that it greatly needed a central organization for investigation and relief, especially one which could co-operate with societies to make investigations in other cities. Miss Lydia E. Sayre, having successful experience as an assistant agent in one of the New York districts, has gone there as secretary.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN R. COMMONS, Department Editor

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

WAGES IN PUBLIC UTILITIES

A bill has been introduced in the Wisconsin Legislature, making it the duty of the Public Service Commission to give wages and hours of labor first consideration when determining what are reasonable charges for the services of a public utility. The bill calls for the establishment of a minimum rate of wages and maximum number of hours for all employes, not lower than the wages and hours demanded by *bona fide* unions of labor affiliated directly or indirectly with the American Federation of Labor. This last provision will doubtless defeat the bill, inviting as it does the objection of class legislation.

Another bill which will probably bring the desired result is likely to pass. It is modelled after the Canadian industrial disputes investigation act of 1907, and provides for a compulsory investigation of all trade disputes on public utilities. This investigation is to be made by a special board appointed by the Public Service Commission on recommendation of the parties to the dispute. The result of the study is to be embodied in a report to the commission, stating what, in the opinion of the board, are the merits of the dispute, and recommending to the parties terms of settlement upon which they ought to agree. Unlike the Canadian act this bill applies also to industries other than public utilities, but in those cases the compulsory investigation features are omitted.

A MINE RESCUE STATION

The first call for assistance upon the Mine Rescue Station at the University of Illinois came from Nashville, Tennessee. The men responded promptly and their knowledge and training enabled them to be of great service in the rescue work. This laboratory, which has only recently been established, is under the direction of the United States Geological Survey.

Many valuable methods of life-saving are being worked out. It has been demonstrated that, by the use of a special oxygen helmet, a man can safely spend two hours at hard work in any gas-filled room. The station is also equipped with portable electric safety lamps, an outfit for the analysis of mine gases, overcasts, stretchers, mine props, dummies, etc.

The laboratory has attracted the attention of large numbers of men engaged in mining and allied industries. It is hoped that operators will send picked squads of men to this station for experience in mine rescue

work and will themselves establish centers for training rescue crews. Such practical educational work will save much experimental legislation.

ILLINOIS COMMISSION REPORT

The report of the Illinois Commission on the Health, Safety and Comfort of Employes has been completed and forwarded to Governor Deneen. The bill accompanying the report contains provisions for the protection of employes from dangerous machinery, for the regulation of motor power, for sanitary conditions, and for adequate air-space and ventilation. The Women's Trade Union League presented a memorandum asking for special protection for female workers.

The American Association for Labor Legislation at the request of manufacturers and trade unionists prepared for the commission an exhaustive report giving a comparative analysis of existing laws in the United States and in foreign countries. "It is the opinion of the commission that the expenditure to which manufacturers will be subjected in providing proper safeguards will be many times justified by the saving effected in personal injury claims alone." The bill submitted by the Illinois commission is not intended to take effect until after January 1, 1910.

PROTECTION AGAINST DUST

Late last year the Ohio State Federation of Labor passed a resolution asking the Department of Labor to assign special inspectors to those trades using metal polishers or other dust producing apparatus. At the special session of the Ohio Legislature just held a law was passed requiring emery wheels or belts of any description, to be provided with blowers or other apparatus that will effectively carry the dust to the outside of the building, or to some place which will receive and confine it. No female can be employed in any of the processes described in the law. Enforcement of the law lies with the chief inspector of workshops and factories. "All fines collected under this act shall inure to the benefit of the county hospital for tuberculosis."

PRISON LABOR ABOLISHED

Contract prison labor is to be abolished in Ohio. A law just enacted requires the commission in charge to equip the factory buildings of the penitentiary for the purpose of manufacturing articles to be used by the

state or its institutions. A prison farm is to be established for outdoor labor for trusted or sickly prisoners. The entire penitentiary is to be remodelled along modern lines.

OHIO BILLS LOST

A House bill on employers' liability was buried in the judiciary committee. This bill provided for the abolition of the assumption-of-risk, and the fellow servant defenses. The contributory negligence defense was to be abolished where such negligence was less than that of the employer. Damages awarded might be diminished in proportion to the negligence of the employe, as determined by the jury. The bill also abolished "contracting out," but provided that the defendant might set off any sum paid toward any insurance or relief benefit.

Other labor bills lost at this session were: One prohibiting the retention of wages of minors by employers; one relating to compulsory education and requiring age and schooling certificates for minors between fourteen and sixteen years of age; and one establishing the eight-hour workday for women, amending the act entitled "An act for the preservation of the health of females. . . ."

IRENE OSGOOD.

SUNDAY REST

Practically all existing laws on Sunday rest have been inspired by motives primarily religious. The idea of Sunday as a day of rest has been of minor importance compared with Sunday as a day of worship. This is indicated by the use of the term "Lord's day" instead of Sunday in many of the laws. It is indicated perhaps more clearly by the provisions frequently found that those who conscientiously observe some other day than Sunday as a day of worship may pursue their ordinary vocations on Sunday, if they do not interfere with others for whom it is a day of religious observance.

Not only have legislators held this view, but until comparatively recent years the courts have upheld Sunday legislation on religious grounds. Thus, in a North Carolina case in 1844 (4 Iredell 400), the court said, in referring to an infraction of the Sunday law: "The truth is that it offends us, not so much because it disturbs us in practising for ourselves the religious duties, or enjoying the salutary repose or recreation of that day, as that it is in itself a breach of God's law and a violation of the party's own religious duty." In 1861 a Pennsylvania court held that Christianity was a part of the common law and so carried with it an obligation to abstain from all worldly labor and business on the Lord's day.

During the past twenty-five years, however, the courts have been changing their attitude, and now the laws requiring Sunday observance are usually justified on the grounds of police power in protecting persons against the physical and moral deteri-

oration of uninterrupted daily toil. A considerable number of state courts have made such decisions and in 1884 the Supreme Court of the United States (113 U. S. 703) made that principle the basis for upholding Sunday rest laws.

ONE DAY OF REST IN SEVEN

In America the legislators have been slower than the courts to grasp the humanitarian idea in rest day laws. But the public is beginning to grasp it and there is a growing sentiment favoring laws requiring employers to give their employes one day of rest each week, Sunday if possible, but if not, a full twenty-four hours on some other day.

Other countries have adopted this plan. Since 1905 laws have been enacted or decrees issued by government ministers in Argentine Republic, Canada, France, Italy, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, and Cape of Good Hope, putting into more or less general application the principle of weekly periods of rest. Most of these laws make Sunday the general rest day, but when for reasons specified in the laws, work must go on during Sunday, a period of rest, usually twenty-four hours, is required on some other day in the week. In France, Italy and Canada, these laws are made to include practically every industry. In the other countries they are limited somewhat, to industries or to territorial districts. In Uruguay and in England similar bills have been introduced in the parliaments, but have not yet been passed.

In the United States, California, in 1893, passed a law making it unlawful for any employer to cause his employes to work more than six days in any week. This is the only state where the principle has been enacted into law. This year another bill was introduced in the California Legislature enlarging and strengthening the principle enacted in 1893.

A bill was introduced in the Wisconsin Legislature in the present session requiring twenty-four consecutive hours of rest a week for all employes except domestic and agricultural laborers. The bill was killed by indefinite postponement.

In all other states, so far as heard from, the bills introduced in the legislatures of the present year contain the religious basis instead of the humanitarian basis. The principle of weekly rest has been put into force by at least one corporation in America without the compulsion of law but for purely economic reasons. The American Telegraph and Telephone Company gives all employes who work Sundays a full day of rest at some other time in the week.

JOHN A. FITCH.

"TOO OLD AT FORTY"

At the last annual conference of the British Labour Party the following resolution was introduced: "That owing to the

enforcement by employers and insurance companies of the 'too old at forty' policy, largely due to the operation of the workmen's compensation act which puts upon industrial concerns financial responsibility from which the ground landlords, etc., are free, we urge upon the Labour Party the necessity of the promotion of a measure making the insurance of workmen a charge upon the imperial exchequer."

In the debate which followed, the opinion seemed unanimous that a system of compulsory state insurance is desirable. As the act at present operates the small employer does not insure and his employees lose the benefits of the act. Compulsory insurance for all is needed. Kier Hardie objected to the resolution. He held that old men were discharged, not because of the operation of the workmen's compensation act (which might be used as an excuse), but because of the desire to get bigger profits out of younger and stronger men. He thought a system of compulsory state insurance desirable, but the insurance should be paid by the employing class. The resolution as it stood was lost after Mr. Hardie pointed out that such a measure would result in taxes being raised so as to make the working classes pay for their own insurance.

Another resolution introduced and passed at the conference, called for compensation for diseases caused by the inhalation of poisonous gases, and for all diseases caused by working in drains and sewers.

A MINIMUM WAGE

For over a year a bill has been before Parliament, establishing a minimum wage in sweated industries. This bill is modelled after the Victoria wages boards. It provides for the establishment of wages boards having the power to fix the minimum rate of wages for workers in tailoring, dress-making, and shirt making. Other trades may be added by an order from the home secretary, upon application by any trade union or trades council representing persons employed in the trade in the district; or

by any six employers or employees. The wages-boards will be composed of not less than six nor more than ten representatives of employers and employees in equal numbers. The chairman is chosen by the members or nominated by the home secretary.

The boards will have power to fix a minimum rate for any single kind of work. The widest discretion is allowed in fixing rates according to time or piece work, and in varying the minimum according to locality, kind of work, and the persons employed. The duty of enforcing the provisions of the act is placed on the factory inspectors.

The Labour Party endorsed the bill, but also passed a resolution demanding the extension of the principle to all trades. In this country the National Consumers' League has begun work for similar legislation.

"BETRAYED"

"Once more the unemployed have been betrayed." So writes Kier Hardie in the *London Labour Leader*. Pledges had been made to the Labour Party that the Parliament of 1909 would attempt to deal in some permanent way with the question of unemployment. But in the king's speech at the opening of Parliament this year the subject was dismissed with the promise of "a system of co-ordinated labour exchanges with which other schemes may subsequently be associated." The Labour Party's unemployed bill will be introduced by John Hodge on April 30. W. H. Beveridge states, in his recent book, *Unemployment*, that "the trade of the country appears to be passing through a depression more severe, or at least more general, than any that has occurred within recent times." To meet the situation demands are being made for the taxation of landed estates above \$25,000 in value.

At the same time that the king's speech was being given at Westminster a right-to-work procession, consisting of from six to eight thousand of the wives and children of the unemployed, assembled at Cavendish Square and marched to the Horticultural Hall.

COMMUNICATIONS

"THE COST OF SOCIAL IMPROVEMENTS"

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to offer a tabloid rejoinder to your editorial on *The Cost of Social Improvements*.

1. Where expenditures designed to remove adverse social conditions promise with reasonable certainty commensurate economic benefits to a community, there can scarcely be room for a difference of opinion as to their wisdom.

2. The burden of proof of this result, however, rests upon the proponents of these ex-

penditures. This is especially true since the "New View" of charities expressly disdains, or at least merely tolerates, the altruistic sentiment and has elected to fight under the banner of economic welfare.

3. The cost is certain; the attainment oftentimes dubious. Are all who agree on the prevention of tuberculosis in accord about the wisdom of large expenditures for playgrounds? And are there not even wider differences of opinion in regard to other less patent advantages which municipal socialism promises in the way of health, education and recreation? Is it true that "There is no

more firmly grounded program than that of social work?" Grounded on what? Certainly not on experience. The program is in part at least an ideal postulate which we hope may find some adequate measure of justification and which we trust may not be shipwrecked on the unforeseen consequences of its media.

4. This ideal program presupposes efficiency in municipal administration. Can its accomplishment in any large sense possess more than an academic interest at a time when our municipal governments fail utterly in providing an efficient administration for our most rudimentary communal needs?

5. Why do the advocates of the "new view" always speak of "increased" expenditures? To quote from the editorial:

"The educational system is costing immense sums, but they should be increased until we catch up with our educational problem."

By this, allusion is perhaps intended to the need for vocational training, but not a word is said about lopping off the absurd excesses of our present system and substituting the efficient for the futile. It is always more expense, rather than better adaptation of means to ends—not how much better results might be obtained with our present gargantuan expenditures; but how much additional expenditure should be superimposed upon the present waste to obtain what is lacking.

6. The *gravamen* of the complaint against municipal socialism is its injustice to the self-supporting poor, rather than its effect upon the wealthy. There is no sharp line of demarcation between poverty and wealth. From utter misery, through the stages of less pressing want, through self-supporting poverty, through comfort and competence and so on, to the summit of extreme wealth, the progress is one of the subtlest gradations. Municipal socialism, or the "new view" fixes its gaze so intently upon the "submerged tenth"—the defective or dependent classes—that a distorted view of the whole of life results. In the scale, just above the dependent class, there is a large fraction of the community, efficient, hard-working and self-supporting, which is removed from the necessity of almstaking by but a small margin. If there could be a perfectly accurate vision of consequences, it would probably be found that each penny's increase in the tax rate meant the thrusting of a certain number of this hitherto self-supporting class over the border-line into dependence. Are not the large number of those who, without asking for alms in any form, bravely struggle through life with independence, self-reliance and self-respect, deserving of as much consideration as the dependents and defectives? If the cost of uplifting a thousand of the latter is to drag down two thousand of the former, wherein lies the victory? Yet, with our present inefficiency in government, where the propor-

tion of waste is oftentimes as two or three is to one, such a result may well be feared.

EDGAR J. LEVEY.

President Title Insurance Company of New York.

[The differences between our view and that of our correspondent are not substantial. We object to his characterization of our program as one of "municipal socialism," and to his intimation that we are indiscriminate advocates of "increased expenditures." In our reference, for example, to increased expenditure for schools in New York we did not have in mind primarily vocational training, though we believe that to be economically justified, but such increase of school sittings as will enable all children of the compulsory school age to attend school.

We do not admit that our gaze has been fixed exclusively upon the "submerged tenth, the defective or dependent classes." On the contrary, we have advocated measures of constructive philanthropy, for public health, for education, for recreation, for improved housing, for efficient municipal government precisely in the interests of those efficient, hard working and self-supporting classes whose cause Mr. Levey champions. We readily grant that waste and inefficiency in government tend to push individuals of these classes over into dependence. For this reason we are at one with him in fighting with all our energy against such inefficiency and waste. We hold that the natural and certain result of the program of social work for which this journal stands is to diminish inefficiency and waste, to enable individuals to rise from dependency to self-reliance, and to make lighter and not heavier the personal burdens of all those who, without asking for alms, bravely struggle through life with independence and self-respect.—Editor THE SURVEY.]

JOTTINGS

New York C. O. S. Conference.—The third monthly conference, under the auspices of the New York Charity Organization Society will be held on April 20, at 11 A. M., in the Assembly Hall of the United Charities Building, 105 East 22nd street. Topics and speakers are:

Records and Methods in Truancy Work, Florence Kelley; Wage Earning Children and Efficient Truancy Work, Miss Pauline Goldmark; Children's Theater, Rev. Percy S. Grant.

Housing Investigation, Louisville.—Miss Janet S. Kemp, the extension secretary of the Federated Charities of Baltimore, has been granted a three months' leave of absence to go to Louisville, Kentucky, to conduct a housing investigation under the auspices of a special housing committee. It is hoped that a new housing code may be obtained for the city.

The Dangers of Disease-Laden Dust in Public Places

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AN interesting feature in connection with the present crusade against the great White Plague is the prominence given to the danger of contagion from disease-laden dust. In nearly all public buildings, railway stations, trains and electric cars there are Board of Health regulations against expectoration. The justice of these rules is immediately apparent when it is explained that the dust in all public places is impregnated with the bacilli of Consumption, Diphtheria, Typhoid, Pneumonia and other contagious diseases. The germs are wafted about, together with the dust, by every current of air, and medical research clearly demonstrates that they readily find lodgement in the human system.

A leading medical authority has recently stated that "one out of seven of all the people who die is prematurely carried off by tuberculosis, and a large proportion of these through *dust-poisoning*, which, *if we choose, we can largely prevent.*"

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

IS THE RACE DEGENERATING IN AMERICA?

If we may trust the general tenor of the discussions in the six sessions of the annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science in Philadelphia last week, there are no convincing evidences that Americans are losing stature and lung capacity, or that our insanity and criminality are increasing. It would appear that children are still children, with the race-old instinct for play still insistent. Urban life is held not to be fundamentally incompatible with race improvement. The recent immigration from southern and southeastern Europe brings us, we are assured, desirable as well as undesirable elements. A diminishing birth rate and even an increasing divorce rate need not be viewed with undue alarm, if they are understood to be incidental and passing phenomena of a transition to a higher, more rational and more stable family and home life.

Altogether we may face the future with tranquil courage. Our industrial system leaves much to be desired, but it does provide a fund of surplus wealth which may be applied to social ends with a greater liberality than has been possible before in the history of man. Taxation, voluntary gifts, and authoritative intervention by society to prevent exploiting and wasteful processes are three distinct ways of applying this surplus. The last method is in essence like the others, although at first sight it may appear to be not so much using a surplus as preventing its creation. Such intervention as shortens hours, prevents accidents, protects women and children, secures decent and sanitary homes, and keeps children in school instead of in factories, may indeed cut down profits or wages and so decrease the apparent cash surplus in the hands of certain individuals. This intervention may therefore, at least temporarily, diminish the philanthropic contributions or even the tax-paying capacity of individuals. Assuming, however, that it is based upon sound judgment and does not impose unreasonable restrictions—as no such control, so far as we are aware, ever has over a large territory or for any considerable period of time—it does not lessen the real social surplus or the contributing and tax-paying capacity of the community as a whole. It increases the number of original sharers in the surplus, and prevents the race deterioration which accompanies extreme inequality in the distribution of wealth.

Direct democratic social control, expenditures from public revenues raised by taxation, and voluntary contributions, are all available here and now, as in no other nation and as never before among us. Disregarding momentary fluctuations of municipal credit and temporary financial stringency we have a free surplus resulting from the accumulation of capital, the better organization of industry, invention and the perfection of machinery, the opening of natural resources, and the efficiency of labor, which will enable our local communities to deal for the first time adequately and radically with any removable causes of degeneracy.

The academy heard several addresses designed to show that there are dangerous influences which are checking and counteracting the social forces which make for improvement. They are probably not prevailing to the extent of

actually lowering average physical efficiency, but retardation of progress is quite as legitimately an object for national concern as retrogression itself. John Mitchell is emphatic in his opinion, speaking for organized labor, that the enormous immigration of the past ten years has lowered standards of living and of compensation, and that especially at a time when large numbers are unemployed it is unjustified. His recommendation is for a higher head tax and the exclusion of those who are unable to read or write their own language. Luther H. Gulick is equally emphatic in his demand, speaking for the Russell Sage Foundation, that facilities for play and recreation shall be provided, and that the elementary schools shall prepare their pupils for the enjoyment of leisure, as well as for the demands of industry. Herbert Parsons defends his demand for a children's bureau in the federal government on the ground that local, state and municipal governments and voluntary agencies which deal directly with the care of children and the prevention of degeneracy in the race need the utmost co-operation from the nation which it can properly and constitutionally give, and that this co-operation is represented in his bill for the establishment of a bureau to investigate the various aspects of child life and child saving.

Most pertinent and disturbing of all the addresses which dwelt upon the adverse aspects of the problem, was that of Mrs. Florence Kelley on the invasion of the home by modern industry. The direct invasion by all those kinds of manufacture in which materials may conveniently be subdivided and so carried away to be worked up at home is only one of the four ways in which the home is threatened. The taking of mothers, of young boys, and finally of young girls, out of the home to put them at work for wages is equally an invasion of the home as it has been and as it should be. Boys sent to the wars are as safe as boys sent into district messenger service. Girls who go into department stores and offices are subjected to dangers and temptations such as cannot be suggested by any traditional peril. Mrs. Kelley believes that the enfranchisement of woman, so far from threatening the integrity of the home, is essential as a means of protecting it. All four of the "invasions" which she discussed are actually increasing in volume notwithstanding agitation and such legislation as has been secured. Until the official co-operation of woman is sought, mankind is not likely to unravel the tangled skein of influences which are tending to disintegrate the family.

Some speakers did not shrink from discussing the more direct and delicate problems of eugenics. Permanent segregation of those who are unfit to bring children into the world and even sterilization were advocated. These aspects of the general subject were not, however, over emphasized to the exclusion of the full consideration of other educational and social measures.

The Academy of Political and Social Science was founded twenty years ago under the leadership of Edmund J. James, now president of the University of Illinois. Its purpose as stated in the prospectus was "to secure to investigators of economics, politics and sociology a regular means of getting the results of their studies directly before the public most interested in them, and as soon as possible after they are ready for publication." The academy has been by far the most successful of all the many associations in its field; and its *Annals*, started as the above statement indicates, to make possible the publication of scientific papers for which there was no room in existing journals, has proved to be the most interesting, the most widely read, and, perhaps it is safe even to say the most scientific, of all the numerous journals in the general field of social science. Membership in the academy, with annual dues of five dollars, includes subscription to the *Annals* which is now published bi-monthly. An early number will contain the papers and addresses on race improvement presented at the annual meeting.

THE COMMON WELFARE

MISS RICHMOND'S NEW APPOINTMENT

The Russell Sage Foundation, continuing its policy of putting branches of its work under the direction of capable and experienced leaders, has selected Miss Mary E. Richmond to be the head of the charity organization extension movement, back of which it has stood financially for nearly two years.

At the Portland, Oregon, meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction the extension work had its inception. Charity organization leaders agreed as to the desirability of an exchange department, and the readiness of *Charities and The Commons* to serve as a medium made feasible the establishing of such a department for the exchange of experiences, a service which has been of peculiar value during the period of financial stress.

The usefulness of the work stimulated the secretaries, members of the exchange department, to call at the Minneapolis meeting of the National Conference of Charities for a definite extension campaign. As a result of the Minneapolis round table conference Francis H. McLean was engaged as field secretary of the Charity Organization Extension of *Charities and The Commons*. The Russell Sage Foundation guaranteed the expenses of the secretary, the magazine continued to supply office room and much clerical assistance, while the societies having membership in the exchange branch met the cost of the weekly exchange letters. The success of Mr. McLean's work called for an assistant secretary, and Miss Margaret F. Byington of the Pittsburgh Survey accepted this second position. The work of these field

secretaries will now be supplemented and directed by Miss Richmond.

As chairman, first of the exchange branch and then of the field department and as, independent of the more formal extension work, the recognized unofficial dean of charity organization society case and district work, Miss Richmond has served as adviser. The relation she will hold to others in the field will in the future be fundamentally the same, but in giving up the secretaryship of a large society she will be released from detail and local work to give herself more completely to the study and dissemination of charity organization society principles and methods.

As a writer and speaker Miss Richmond has stood during the past two decades in the front of the national philanthropic group. In her new position her varied experiences gained as secretary, first of the Baltimore Charity Organization Society and then as secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity can be more directly transmitted into educative force for the whole country.

The work Mr. McLean has done in stimulating the formation of new societies and in reviving the energies of old societies, has increased the demand for workers for the Charity Organization Society field. This demand necessitates a more vigorous effort to draw on the colleges to furnish fresh recruits for social service.

To make the technique and scope of charity organization work such that it will commend itself to the finer type of men and women, those who with "sanctified common sense" stand ready to be enlisted for social service, is a task the importance of which to the field of constructive charity cannot be exaggerated.

PORTER R. LEE GOES
TO PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY

Porter R. Lee, who takes Miss Richmond's place in Philadelphia, is one of the leaders in the younger generation of charity workers.



PORTER R. LEE.

He was born in Buffalo in 1879 and prepared for college at the Central High School in that city. In 1903 he was graduated from Cornell University and in the fall of that year he became assistant secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo which position he held until January, 1909, when he was made joint secretary with Frederic Almy. From 1904 to 1908 he was manager of the Fresh Air Mission in Buffalo and from 1904 to 1907 he was a member of the executive committee of the Buffalo Municipal League. Mr. Lee is an active worker both in the National Conference of Charities and Correction and in the New York State Conference.

DR. McVEY TO
HEAD UNIVERSITY

Frank L. McVey of Minneapolis, recently elected president of the University of North Dakota, has been for eleven years president of the board of directors of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis. He has been an attendant at numerous national conferences and is well known to social workers in different parts of the country.

Dr. McVey, who is a native of Ohio, is thirty-nine years old. He was graduated from the Ohio Wesleyan University in 1893, receiving his Ph. D. from Yale in 1895. He became an editorial writer in New York city and also held an instructorship in Teachers College. In 1896 he was appointed instructor in economics in the University of Minnesota and professor in 1900, where he remained until April, 1907, when Governor Johnson appointed him chairman of the newly created State Tax Commission. Here Dr. McVey rendered striking service to the state and to the general cause of tax reform. The first report of the commission, recently issued, is said to be one of the most unique contributions to the literature of taxation.

Dr. McVey is the author of three books, *Modern Industrialism*, *The History and Government of Minnesota*, *The History of the Populist Movement*, and of many magazine articles and reviews. He was vice-chairman of the International Jury of Awards on Municipal Government for the St. Louis Exposition; founder and secretary of the Minnesota Academy of Social Sciences; and is a member of the executive committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Throughout his teaching experience Dr. McVey aimed to relate instruction closely to practical affairs and he himself has been identified with many of the social movements in the state. His work in connection with the Associated Charities in Minneapolis has been such as to bring that organization up from mediocrity to a position of honor among the societies of the country.

Dr. McVey will assume his new duties in August.

PLAYGROUNDS IN MASSACHUSETTS

The second and closing chapter of the Massachusetts playground referendum has been brought to a termination by Cambridge which under an amendment to its charter, votes in the spring, and the sixteen towns with a population of ten thousand or more, which under the provisions of chapter 513 of the Massachusetts acts for 1908 were obliged to vote on the question. Two towns, Brookline and Revere, did not vote because they had already complied with the law or will comply by the time it goes into effect.

The vote in Cambridge was most interesting. There was a tendency to keep the matter off the ballot in the belief that the city could consider itself exempt from the necessity of a vote, as it had a number of playgrounds although none of them had equipment. The local workers, however, organized to promote the movement definitely. They saw to it that the playground question was placed on the ballot, and then exerted themselves to secure a favorable vote. At every convenient opportunity they arranged meetings which were addressed, in the main, by local speakers who did some excellent work. Much to the surprise of local workers, the result was that Cambridge cast the largest vote in the state, almost twelve to one, or 10,131 for, to 869 against.

This gives a magnificent showing for the twenty-six cities whose total vote was 135,852 for, to 28,600 against. The question was carried by a large majority in twenty-four out of the twenty-six cities, Northampton and North Adams rejecting it by narrow margins of 95 and 156 respectively.

The campaign in the towns was interesting. The Massachusetts towns are proverbially cautious, and it was expected that the movement would be defeated in a number of them, the more so that in general instances the leaders were directly banded against it. The surprise came, however, when every one of the sixteen towns voted yes, with a vote ranging from 648 for, to 571 against in Adams, to 1,650 for, to 196 against in

Westfield. The total in the sixteen towns was 17,799 for, to 5,674 against, surely a safe majority and a conclusive indication of the people's attitude. It is interesting to note that there were quite a number of blanks in every city and town. This would apparently indicate that certain people care nothing about the subject one way or another, nothing about the children's interest or those of the town generally, an indifference which puts them in a rather unfortunate class.

In Framingham the yes vote on playgrounds was 1,363 and the no vote on license 1,363. They were doubtless not the same votes, but it is an interesting commentary on the state of the public mind in Framingham, which gave 1,363 for playgrounds and 368 against, and the same vote against license with a somewhat larger vote for license.

In Hyde Park the politicians openly fought the proposition from beginning to end. A few citizens, and it should be appropriately noted that women were among the leaders, persistently supported the idea and the result was a vote of 1,299 in favor of it to 327 against.

Adams was dead on the subject till the very end. Three or four days before the election the secretary of a labor union agreed to distribute a few leaflets and the vote was, as already mentioned, 648 for, and 571 against. This is significant in view of the fact that the leading manufacturers, the ministers, the school people, and other leading citizens opposed action at this time. It shows, at least, that the people are learning to think and that leadership in Massachusetts towns must base itself upon something broader than personal opinion and personal inclination. This movement is obviously in the interests of the people and it is equally obvious that the people have seen this.

Westfield was ready for the question without any campaign. When people were approached they said that they were only awaiting election day. The vote of 1,650 for, to 196 against proves that they were right. There is no reason on the surface why Westfield should support such a movement and Adams should not. There are, in fact, many more reasons

why Adams should support it as it is more extensively a manufacturing town, and more compactly built. It is therefore going to need playgrounds more than Westfield. It has been seen, however, that there were strong opposing interests which did not show themselves in Westfield.

The total vote for the state is 153,651 for, and 34,284 against. This is the record in twenty-six cities and sixteen towns. Counting out the two places which voted no, forty cities and towns are left which have officially voted yes. Unless the spirit of the people is directly opposed, all these cities and towns will have one or more playgrounds, equipped and in operation, by July 1, 1910.

Too much thanks cannot be given to Representative Ralph Davol of the Massachusetts Legislature, who initiated the playground movement. Mr. Davol says that he was actuated by the fact that for ten years he was practically an invalid, seeking health in various parts of the country, and that careful consideration led him to believe that his condition was due to the lack of opportunity for regular exercise in the open air when he was a boy.

As in the fall campaign, the movement has been extensively supported by the Massachusetts Civic League and the Playground Association of America. The league has supplied a speaker free of charge to every community desiring one from the outside. Numerous addresses have been given, literature and posters supplied and inquiries of every description answered. The Playground Association of America contributed publicity.

An interesting outcome of the movement has been that the idea is taking root in many places too small to vote under the act. Already substantial campaigns are under way in Winthrop, Westboro, Natick, Ware, Oxford, Methuen, Wenham, Holliston, Sherborn, Ayer, Lexington and Tewksbury. Nathan D. Bill has given a valuable site to the city of Springfield; Miss A. J. Borden in her will, recently filed, gave a useful tract of land to Fall River; Milton B. Whitney has given a good playground to Westfield, and Mr. and Mrs. J. H. G. Gilbert have given a park of

fifty-four acres to Ware, upon which it is hoped a permanent playground may be developed.

Even in Somerville and Newton, where the officials refused to place the matter on the ballot, the people are going ahead independently. Already a petition with 2,600 signatures has been presented to the city government of Somerville and recently a public hearing was granted. The aim is to secure an appropriation to equip the playgrounds already in existence. In Newton the people are working for appropriations, and there is a strong sentiment in favor of raising a large sum of money by private subscription to buy additional playgrounds.

APPLIED CHRISTIANITY IN A JERSEY CITY CHURCH

The latest evidence of sociology's invasion of the church is found in the First Congregational Church, Jersey City. Its pastor, Rev. John L. Scudder, declares that to hold the young men of his congregation he must give them more modern subjects to discuss than Old Testament heroes or the theological questions with which the Sunday school ordinarily deals. These students of the new generation are interested in the economic and social problems of the day. They want to study and understand them so that they may help find that solution for which all the world is seeking. Altruism tempers pure devotion and inspires a love of the common welfare rather than a mere desire for self-improvement.

In response to the demands of his flock Dr. Scudder has replaced his adult Bible class by a Young Men's Club for the Study of Applied Christianity. It starts with twenty members, but its founder says its establishment has been received with so much enthusiasm that it will shortly number one hundred. The club will be self-governing and the utmost freedom of speech will prevail. Every inducement will be offered members to think for themselves and to express their views in papers to be read at the meetings. Any man may air a grievance that he fancies will be the better for a breeze, and no wrong will be thought too trivial

for redress. Child labor, one of the burning questions of this legislative session, will be the first topic of discussion, and the poor little South Jersey glass factory drudges may find champions among these Hudson County Don Quixotes whom the coming years will arm with that all powerful weapon—the vote.

To facilitate the work of the club, Dr. Scudder will collect a sociological library which will be at the disposal of the members.

UNITED EFFORT FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

"Neither capital nor labor can settle the issues between them, only the state representing the whole people can do so."

This was the conviction impressively expressed by the labor commissioner of Minnesota at the meeting of the American Association for Labor Legislation held recently in Chicago. He affirmed that the states taking an advanced position in legislating on some equitable distribution of the loss incurred by industrial casualties, virtually penalized themselves.

No better statement could be given of the need and value of this association itself. Its national scope, with its sections close to the practical situation in the several states, enables it to promote uniformity in labor legislation as no other industrial organization is situated or equipped to do. Peculiarly advantageous is it to have the headquarters of the association at the capital of Wisconsin, where, more than in any other state, the departments of the state government co-operate with the state university in promoting that kind of research which furnishes the only basis for intelligent legislation.

The active membership and officers of the association happily include some of the very best informed and most practically efficient state officials, university professors, trade unionists and employers. Representatives of all these constituent classes presented to each other the most encouraging evidence of the increasing response received from manufacturers and business men, physicians

and boards of health, lawyers and legislators when and wherever the facts and arguments of such problems as industrial hygiene, accidents, workingmen's insurance and compensation and the labor of women and children are presented to the people.

Professor Commons is right in emphasizing the paramount value of the big human equations in these problems as solvents of the more difficult problem of industrial peace. He is farsighted in demanding such a scheme of industrial insurance as will tend to educate and impose the sense of social responsibility upon employes, employers and the public. There was marvelously little disagreement among the very diverse interests represented in insisting upon the same economy in preventing and saving the waste in human blood and muscle as in the materials and machinery of industry.

The more complete report of this suggestive occasion in a later issue will be awaited with interest by our readers, and new emphasis will be laid upon the importance of the department regularly conducted by the officers of this association in the mid-monthly numbers of *THE SURVEY*.

BILLS THAT THREATEN NEW YORK'S TENEMENTS

Several dangerous bills affecting housing conditions have recently been introduced in the New York Legislature. One¹ would permit modification of the tenement house law in the discretion of the Tenement House Department, and create a board to hear appeals from department decisions. This bill if enacted would sweep away at one stroke a great number of the more important provisions of the law. It would make it wholly a matter of discretion whether in tenement houses the department should or should not cause prostitutes to be evicted, prohibit overcrowded lodging houses within the buildings, require basement and cellar rooms over marshy ground and other wet, unhealthful cellars to be protected against dampness, require adequate water

¹Assembly Int. 1,424, print 1773—Lewis.

supply and provision of decent sanitary accommodations, sufficient in number for the families using them, compel reasonable protection of plumbing against freezing, cause yards, courts and areaways to be properly drained, cause leaky roofs to be repaired, require open plumbing instead of the boxed-in abominations affording breeding places for vermin in the old houses, cause adequate rain pipes to be provided to prevent dampness, prohibit in the houses the storing and picking over of filthy rags and the keeping on the premises of dangerous combustible materials, and require owners of tenement buildings to be registered. It would also do away with all mandatory requirements to prevent the spread of fire. The only provisions untouched would be those relating to light and air, the percentage of lot to be occupied, the placing of water closets in ventilated rooms, cleanliness of buildings and escape in case of fire.

All buildings to be constructed would be affected. The bill does not distinguish between existing and new tenement houses. Nor is its application limited to the tenement house law. It is expressly included that the power to modify applies also to "any existing law or ordinance relating to the construction, alteration, condition or use of tenement houses." In the case of the majority of the requirements which it is proposed to make subject to modification, it is difficult to see that discretionary powers could conceivably be of any advantage. Unquestionably prostitutes ought to be evicted from tenement buildings where they are brought into close contact with growing children. Unquestionably cellar basements over marshy ground ought to be protected against dampness. On the other hand, the danger of these powers is very serious. They hamper an efficient and honest commissioner at every turn by compelling him to consider each case as if there were no law to guide him, and by placing him constantly in the unpleasant situation of being obliged to refuse to exercise discretion which is legally permitted him in spite of any pressure that may be brought to bear. With inefficient or dishonest officials, however, the situation would be infinitely worse.

If the bill became a law and such officials came into power, the way would be opened for a carnival of graft and a period of total non-enforcement such as New York has never seen.

It must be remembered that the present tenement house law and the powers today granted to the Tenement House Department, take the place of mandatory provisions dating in many cases from years back and enforced in former times by the Board of Health, Building Department, Fire Department and Police Department. These old laws were consolidated into the one tenement house law and now it is proposed to make the greater part of this law wholly discretionary. Not only would many of the benefits of recent legislation be lost but the city would go back fifty years or more in respect to mandatory laws on many points.

The further provision of the bill creating a board of appeal would mean that each individual order of the Tenement House Department on any of the points above enumerated, and on a number of others making too long a list to be included here, might, after consideration by the commissioner, be held up again subject to further consideration by the proposed board of appeal. Obviously such a board, meeting once a week and consisting of busy men, would be hopelessly clogged with cases if every discontented owner who wished to postpone or escape making a repair or remedying a violation, had a right to appeal and to have all the circumstances in his case carefully considered.

Similar to this bill in all important features and equally dangerous is another¹ introduced in the Senate somewhat later.

It is understood that these bills have the support of some of the retail grocers of the city. It is not believed that they were introduced with a realization of how far-reaching would be the effect of the wholesale discretionary powers which it is proposed to grant.

Two other bills² would give discretionary powers in slightly different form to

¹Senate int. 986, print 1252—Davis.

²Assembly int. 1573; print 2050—Lachman. Senate int. 921, print 1140—Alt. Corresponding bills.

the tenement house commissioner or any superintendent in charge of a borough branch office of the department to modify the tenement house act and the rules of the department in the case of buildings erected before 1901. These are open to most of the same objections as the other bills. The discretionary powers are less in one direction, as they are made to apply only to older buildings, but are extended in another—since the power to modify is made to cover provisions relating to light and ventilation, percentage of lot to be occupied, placing water-closets in ventilated rooms, cleanliness of buildings, and fire-escapes.

The fifth¹ of the group of objectionable bills is the familiar one excluding certain three-story, three-family tenement houses from the operation of the tenement house act and the jurisdiction of the tenement house department. Attention was called last year to the dangers of this bill which failed of passage at that time.

CHICAGO'S

BAKE SHOPS

One of the most noteworthy among recent significant achievements of Chicago's health department is the reformation of bakeshop conditions. In November, 1907, an ordinance was passed, as then reported in these columns, to stiffen and make more specific the regulations concerning bakeries, which were found, generally speaking, to involve conditions menacing the city's health.

The ordinance clarifies and broadens the definition of bakeries so as to leave no doubt concerning its application. It specifies in detail the requirements for cleanliness, light, ventilation, sanitary arrangements and finish for walls and ceilings; it prohibits the employment of anyone suffering from a communicable disease; forbids the use of tobacco; above all, it provides that hereafter no bakery shall be established in a basement, specifying that the floor must not be at a depth greater than five feet below the street. The latter section also stipulates that the finished ceiling must

be not less than eight and one-half feet high.

Enforcement of the ordinance has been in the hands of Chief Sanitary Inspector Charles B. Ball and his corps of inspectors. Among the first thousand bakeshops examined, 457 were found underground. Of these, 226 occupied the whole cellar, 85 extended across the front of the cellar, and 142 across the rear. Six had absolutely no windows. In 143 cases out of the thousand, dirt from street and alley was found blowing into the bakery. In many cases the dough was directly under a window opening at the sidewalk level. Animals were found in many bakeries—dogs and cats as well as rats and mice. A West Polk street bakery had ten cats, and one on Milwaukee avenue sixteen dogs. Fifty-five per cent of the underground bakeries were notably deficient as to cleanliness, structure, lighting and ventilation.

At the present date there is a record of 1,398 bakeries inspected, out of somewhat less than 1,500 in the city. In cellars there were 578 according to the record up to December, 1908. Of these, 221 were ordered closed. Some of these can be fixed up, and structural changes were suggested for 137. Of the 137, thirty-four made the changes ordered and 102 have discontinued. The department has approved, up to March 1, seventy-four plans for new bakery constructions, and has examined and reported on 203 proposed locations. By May 1 it is expected that basement and cellar bakeshops will be practically things of the past in Chicago.

COLUMBIAN SETTLEMENT,

PITTSBURGH, ENDOWED,

Those who read Miss Reed's sketch of the Jewish immigrants of the Hill District in the second Pittsburgh Survey number of *Charities and The Commons*, will hail with interest the announcement that good fortune has come to Columbian School and Settlement, which, for ten years and over, has carried on effective neighborhood work in this section of Pittsburgh.

¹Senate Int. 891, print 1104—Stilwell.

Mr. and Mrs. George Kaufmann have given a fund of \$150,000 as a memorial to their daughter Irene, the major part of which will be used for the erection of a new building on the present site. In addition, they have volunteered to add annually twenty-five per cent to the amount raised by the association toward maintenance. The gift is broad in spirit and its inception has been credited to Rabbi J. Leonard Levy. The new building will be known as the Irene Kaufmann Settlement and two members of the board, Mrs. A. Leo Weil and Mrs. Nathaniel Spear, are at present visiting neighborhood houses in other cities in anticipation of developing the building plans along effective lines.

Columbian Settlement has been fortunate in its three headworkers, Miss Levy, now Mrs. Solomon Foster of Newark; Julia Schoenfeld, who is known for her civic work both in New York and Pennsylvania, and Addie S. Weihl, the present headworker. Like Eleanor McMain of Kingsley House, New Orleans, and one or two other of the younger women in settlement work in this country, Miss Weihl has manifested that rare gift of appreciating the life of the people about her and interpreting it to others, of which Miss Addams is the foremost example.

The work has been carried on in an old residence set back from Wiley avenue, which is the thoroughfare of this part of the Hill District; and up the steps past the lawn to an old-fashioned porch—the row has afforded a pleasing contrast to the built-up tenement blocks adjoining—has come a never ending stream of neighbors who have been sure of understanding and help from the householders within. There has been an air of democratic welcome and informal friendliness about the house which, if it can be transferred to the new, will mean more than its most elaborate equipment. Here have come long bearded scholars, deep in the learning of the Hebrew culture as it has been handed down in the eastern cities of Europe; here have come Russian exiles fresh from villages where pogroms have run riot; here girls whose limbs and lungs have been wasted by the unsanitary

life of damp cellar workrooms; here, immigrant peddlers and small merchants and Jewish craftsmen, sore or bewildered at the injustice meted out to them by aldermen's courts or installment dealers. They and the many others of their company have reflected the present evils of living conditions in the poorer neighborhoods of the industrial center. And, on the other hand, out from here has gone no little of the spirit which is characteristic of the newer Pittsburgh, of remedying conditions, or re-invigorating and broadening the usefulness of schools and health department and government generally in its relation to the wholesomeness and sanctities of life of the humbler dwellers of the town. So that this very understanding of their wrongs and ill conditions, no less than of their aspirations, has given these people through the settlement workers a part in moulding that public opinion which speaks today for change and progress in the municipal life of Pittsburgh.

CONFERENCE ON DENTAL HYGIENE

The influence of the successful movement for oral and dental hygiene in Massachusetts spread quickly to a neighboring state and as a result a conference has been held at Providence, R. I. Its main purposes were to educate and awaken the public to the vital importance of oral cleanliness and its relation to general health, to arouse the interest of school children, and to study the best means to secure oral and dental health.

The conference met under the auspices of the Rhode Island State Board of Health, Rhode Island Dental Society and the Rhode Island Oral and Dental Hygiene Council. The Providence Society for Organizing Charity, the Providence District Nursing Association, superintendents of public and parochial schools and the press co-operated. The traveling exhibit of the Massachusetts Dental Hygiene Council was loaned and men prominent in the movement instructed the public by lectures and demonstrations.

A circular on the care of the mouth and teeth was placed in the hands of 35,000 school children in Providence. That

this method of interesting the pupils brought good results was attested by the large audiences on the afternoon devoted to school children. The hall had to be cleared and the program twice repeated that all might see the exhibit and hear the lectures illustrated with lantern slides.

The need of a free dental clinic for Providence, like that at Strassburg, Germany, was discussed by the mayor and the secretary of the State Board of Health, and further emphasized by a paper on the results of dental and oral examinations of 1,200 pupils in the public schools of the city. A fact worthy of note is that during conference week the superintendent of schools recommended dental inspection in the schools to the school committee.

The plans for oral and dental hygiene by no means ended with the one successful conference, for the Rhode Island State Board of Health is preparing a travelling exhibit to be shown in the state public schools.

THE STANDARD OF LIVING¹

Reviewed by HENRY R. MUSSEY

University of Pennsylvania

What are the essentials of a normal standard of living, and what do they cost in New York? This question is answered in Professor Chapin's notable volume, which constitutes the report for the committee on the standard of living appointed by the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction two years ago. It is a painstaking, thorough and illuminating study, and the Russell Sage Foundation has done well to help make it possible. Thanks to this book and Mrs. Moore's Wage Earners' Budgets, at last we really know something about how an important group of the American people live.

In making the present study, an elabo-

rate schedule was prepared. It was filled out item by item by visitors in consultation with housewives in all parts of the city. In this way 642 family schedules were received, of which 391 were used, covering only families of from four to six persons. Attention is centered chiefly on the 318 families having incomes between \$600 and \$1,100 a year. About half of them were American, Teutonic, Irish or colored, the rest mostly Russian, Austro-Hungarian, Italian or Bohemian. In a few cases account books were kept, and the returns were checked in various ways to insure accuracy. The results are excellently presented and interpreted, and every term is given an exact statistical value.

Housing naturally occupies first place. It makes an appalling showing. Although rent swallows up from a quarter to a sixth of all income, forty-four per cent of the families live in less than four rooms, while almost half of them have more than one and one-half persons to a room, these being the standards of overcrowding adopted. Does the committee seriously consider four New York tenement rooms adequate housing for a family of six? Such a standard is "normal" only in the sense of being usual. Even accepting this standard as satisfactory, overcrowding does not cease till income rises above \$1,100. The undorned figures of overcrowding, dark rooms and the like facts tell an eloquent tale of civic neglect and "hindsightness." New York's experience has an ominous lesson for other industrial communities with their swelling ground rents, planless growth, and lack of public control of the uses of land. That the expenditure of an exorbitant percentage of even a \$1,000 income will not secure adequate housing accommodations is a social fact of serious significance.

On the basis of scientific study, twenty-two cents a man a day was taken as the minimum necessary to buy food enough to maintain physical efficiency. Two-thirds of the families under \$600 spend less than that amount, and a third of those between \$600 and \$800. Correspondingly, \$100 is put as the minimum clothing expenditure for a family of five.

¹The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City. By Robert Coit Chapin, Ph. D., New York. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Price \$2 postpaid from Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York, 1909. Pp. 372.

Fifty-seven per cent of the families between \$600 and \$800 are below that limit, the south Europeans especially failing to reach the standard.

A third of the families reported free medical aid, and only one in six had any expenditure for dentistry. What a suggestion here of our need for a constructive public health policy. Provision for burial expenses, covered by industrial insurance, is almost universal among even the poorest Americans and north Europeans. Payments for recreation and for all "culture wants" do not amount to ten per cent on any incomes below \$1,000. The severity of the struggle to make ends meet appears throughout the study.

Professor Chapin cautiously concludes: "It seems safe to conclude that an income under \$800 is not enough to permit the maintenance of a normal standard. On the other hand, an income of \$900 or over probably permits the maintenance of a normal standard, at least so far as the physical man is concerned." Such a statement, eminently sane and conservative, raises some serious questions regarding our existing standards of pay and regarding the consequences for civilization of letting cities grow up without taking thought for the morrow.

When we note that the percentage of overcrowded, underfed and underclad families is higher among those reporting a surplus than among those showing none, we begin to wonder whether saving is always an economic virtue, and we see one reason why insurance and pension plans as a substitute for saving are making such strides in all industrial countries. When we observe excessive overcrowding and underfeeding among families reporting supplementary earnings beside the father's wages, we cannot avoid an uncomfortable query as to

whether poverty, after all, is not largely responsible for the children going to work. The book in fact raises a hundred searching questions of social well-being. If an income of from \$800 to \$900 is the minimum on which a normal standard of living can be attained in New York, what proportion of the adult male wage earners of that city receive that amount? Why do so many receive less, and what can be done to enable them to get more? Why is the cost of living so high, and why are the conditions of living so difficult and unwholesome? What can be done to lower the cost and make the conditions more favorable? Such questions as these are fundamental. If our civilization is to progress, they must be answered and answered right. A book that drives these questions home has immense value, even though it makes no attempt at answering them.

The body of Professor Chapin's work deals with New York city conditions, but there is an invaluable chapter on workmen's budgets in statistical literature which, with the appended bibliography, is far and away the best guide available for the study of the standard of living. A series of useful appendices include the valuable address of Frank Tucker which started the investigation, the preliminary report of the committee, a facsimile of the schedule with instructions to investigators, a report from nine cities and towns outside of Greater New York, a report from Buffalo, Dr. Underhill's report on the nutrition investigation, a translation of one of LePlay's studies, and the bibliography. The book represents an important piece of work admirably done. It deserves the careful attention of social workers, economists and employers alike.

A SCHOOL OF PUBLIC HEALTH

NORMAN E. DITMAN, M. D.

NEW YORK

It is rarely that a popular wave has swept so broadly over our country or met with so enthusiastic a reception as has the doctrine of preventive medicine and public health. The movement has been made possible by the combination of two modern developments—the discovery of the causes of many of our disease conditions, and the method of accomplishing popular reform in scientific matters by direct appeal to a public which is becoming daily more enlightened. It is distinctly a modern achievement that the physician, from his den of mystery and reticence, has been enticed into the open with his invaluable burden of scientific information on the nature of disease. And it is largely due to the modern methods of our social economists that this valuable burden has been shared with the public.

Important as it is to know the cause of disease in order to prevent it, such knowledge is of little avail until methods are found for its application. For example: while Koch discovered a decade ago that the tubercle bacillus was in the sputum of tubercular subjects, it is only now that we are beginning to apply this knowledge with effect to stamp out tuberculosis. The knowledge that smallpox can be prevented by vaccination, that typhoid fever and cholera may be transmitted by infected milk and water, malaria and yellow fever by infected mosquitoes and bubonic plague by infected fleas and rats, is of little avail in obviating these diseases until this knowledge is applied.

The key to the best medical development is preventive medicine or sanitary science and public health. How best to use this key is the problem of greatest interest to philanthropists and sanitarians in this country; for as the designation "public health" implies, much of the progress in applying knowledge must depend upon the education of the public, either directly or through trained offi-

cials and instructors. There is absolute unanimity on one score, however, that the matter is entirely educational. It is for this reason that, during the past year, the problem has been considered so widely by progressive universities, and that popular encouragement has been so great.

It is seldom that any course of university lectures has attracted such wide notice and created so much favorable comment as one now being conducted in Columbia University on sanitary science and public health. Here, for perhaps the first time in educational circles it has been recognized that administration of public health entails a knowledge of medicine, hygiene, sanitation, engineering, law and social economy; and that practical results in the improvement of public health are best obtained by the education, not only of those engaged in these fields, but of the public as well.

While great practical results are promised from the education of such diversified classes, the most direct benefits can undoubtedly be derived from the training of men to fill positions as health officers and sanitary inspectors on our municipal and rural boards of health. Preceding the mother country as we do in so many modern industrial and commercial methods, few realize how far behind England we are in our endeavor to ward off sickness among the masses, and to prevent the suffering and economic loss which result from incapacity and disability. England has a well trained, fully manned Public Health Service, to supply the demands of which public health instruction is given in the Universities of London, Cambridge, Liverpool, Manchester and Edinburgh. The contrast need not be carried further than to mention that in this country, with its heterogeneous population of great disease potentiality, not one such school of instruction exists and that the scientific training of our public servants is farcical.

The economic importance of the matter has been forcibly driven home by Prof. Irving Fisher's Conservation Commission report on national vitality to ex-President Roosevelt. The demand is being reiterated by our city and state health commissioners and from no quarter is it more urgent than from the public.

To meet it Columbia University is attempting to establish a school of sanitary science and public health. The advance course of public health lectures, crowded with enthusiastic listeners, the requests from all quarters of the country for publication and preservation of these lectures, and the partial duplication of this course by eight institutions of learning, leave little room for doubt that the time has come to develop this form of instruction.

We are inclined to forget that thousands of dwellers in cities are constantly in danger of epidemic from water-borne disease which may arise from a very insignificant contamination of their water sheds; and we little appreciate that the greatest protection from such calamity lies in well trained "sanitary service." Until sufficient funds are available for founding a training school, the curriculum can probably not be determined with definiteness. Three kinds of instruction, however, are called for: the theoretical, the laboratory and the practical. In the last type—by affiliation with boards of health—opportunities may be given students to become personally familiar with the methods of food inspection in slaughter houses, markets, dairies and bakeries; to inspect conditions in lodging houses, tenements, factories, workshops and schools; to inspect water purification and sewage disposal plants, and to become personally familiar with quarantine and health board administrative methods.

In the laboratories water, milk and food analyses may be conducted, disease conditions in animals and man prejudicial to public health studied and the efficiency of sanitary methods and appliances determined.

In the theoretical instruction may be included such topics as impure water and air, ventilation, the sanitation of buildings, refuse disposal, street cleaning, im-

pure food, specific diseases and epidemics, vital statistics, sanitary law, quarantine, personal and community hygiene, gymnasiums, public baths, playgrounds, dangerous trades, preventable accidents, child labor, visiting nursing and the prevention of alcoholism, insanity and venereal diseases.

The success of the recent tuberculosis exhibition, lasting but a few weeks, with its thousands of visitors, is convincing evidence that there is demand for instruction in this field, which should be continually satisfied.

While tuberculosis is probably the greatest cause of mortality in this country, there are other diseases almost equaling, if not exceeding it, in the extent of their morbidity, as for example alcoholism, venereal and heart affections and Bright's disease. Full duty, therefore, in the administration of modern health problems, can only be accomplished by comprehensive, continuous educational efforts.

The agitation of the modern health movement, which is accomplished in the permanent form by a school of public health, has done much to emphasize what a huge influence matters of human health have upon the existence, the happiness and financial success of the country. Until this movement began we did not know that the nation's annual loss from tuberculosis was \$240,000,000, and from preventable accidents \$348,000,000. We did not appreciate the loss to the country from epidemics of typhoid fever and plague, from child labor and lack of attention to school conditions. We did not realize the burdens imposed upon the state by insanity, preventable blindness, alcoholism and syphilis and the amount of disease transmitted by impure food, milk and water.

We have come to appreciate, however, that health is our greatest national asset, that we are devoting less effort and means to preserve this than to the care of animals, plants and commerce. We are convinced that to maintain the proper city, state or national control over sanitation and hygiene the first and prime requisite is a well trained body of men to constitute our future "sanitary serv-

ice." The recent secretary of war was frequently designated our "secretary of peace." This is the modern conception which creates the greatest moral precedent for a secretary of health, guiding a trained corps whose service as soldiers of the common weal should be as highly

honorable as that of our army and navy.

It is difficult to believe that opportunities to train such a corps will be long denied. To encourage such efforts as Columbia University is now making is, in this modern light, one of our greatest duties to the nation.

A SCHOOL CALLED "HUMANE"

A university foundation whose purpose is to provide for instruction or related work along humane lines is even more of an innovation than a school of public health. A generous donor has made such provision for Columbia University by establishing a memorial to Henry Bergh, the pioneer of one class of benevolent work in the United States. The ultimate uses of the fund have not yet been determined; but a provisional scheme was worked out in the fall of 1908 for a course of nine lectures on humane themes. These lectures have been given at weekly intervals throughout the past two months.

In ordinary usage the term "humane" has acquired a narrow, technical meaning that associates it with the work of societies for the prevention of cruelty. It has evidently been the purpose of those who organized the new course of lectures to give broad scope to the term, so as to bring out the wider social aspects, rather than the more restricted individual sides of work and thought that may properly be called humane.

Beginning with a lecture on the historical development of such ideals and practices, the course dealt with various phases of the treatment of animals, of children and of offenders, and concluded with a lecture on economic aspects. No attempt was made to develop rules of action or to explain details of activity of existing agencies and organizations. That will later be done in a special report, the preparation of which is in progress. On the contrary, the aim of the lectures seems to have been to outline general principles which should give background to courses that may be developed later in larger detail through the Henry Bergh Foundation. The course

has been characterized by a unity of treatment unusual in so diverse a collection of topics.

The "humane" work of the past fifty years has been individualistic in its outlook and in its aims. Its canons of judgment and tests of work have been few and simple. Cruel treatment of animals must be avoided because it causes pain. The animal has a right to immunity from suffering. And the way in which to realize this immunity is to deal directly with the actual or potential cruellist. This involves, on the one hand, the warning or prosecution of the perpetrator of cruel acts; and on the other, by the most obvious prophylaxis, the educating of children by precept, homily, story or example to a kindly attitude toward animals. Similarly in regard to children, the attitude and practice of anti-cruelty societies have been those of seeking to promote more considerate treatment by warning or prosecuting those guilty of cruelty, or, where that has not been feasible or promising, by "rescuing" the victims. Such aims, in and of themselves, are of course good. The only question that arises concerns the scope and character of means to these ends.

In recent years, a newer attitude has crept into the practice of agencies for the prevention of cruelty. They are gradually getting into the current of thought and practice that has borne the social worker beyond the policy of palliative treatment of individuals to a search for causes and their removal.

In line with this newer view, animals must be well treated not merely because ill-treatment brings pain but because only a well-treated animal can realize the largest possibilities of efficient service. Satisfactory service, in turn, is recognized

as a vital condition of kindly treatment. In dealing with children, likewise, abuse must be prevented and suffering avoided. But here again, the seemingly direct method is less hopeful, because less far-reaching. Premature toil, improper living conditions, lack of adequate or proper nourishment, ill-directed or inadequate educational arrangements, and a host of other environing conditions are fecund sources of cruelties that cannot be abolished without drying up the sources themselves. So also in dealing with crime and with offenders, the shortcomings of our political, economic, and social institutions must be appraised and corrected. Our method of administering justice and the prevailing penal system must be regarded as not only inhumane in their immediate efforts, but as promoting the very conditions that lead to a rising tide of unsocial practices and of resulting cruelties.

The hopeful aspect of the whole situation is of course to be found in the fact

that our present civilization is the first in which a well-rounded, genuinely humane attitude has been attainable. Ever before, sympathetic feeling has had to enforce its claims in the face of an adverse economic situation. But conditions now present a new aspect. Animals need no longer be used by man in ways that bring pain, or stunted growth or consequent, premature death. Children need no longer be exploited for the sake of immediate material returns from their work, nor need they be subjected to other narrowing influences that bring a too early, under-developed maturity. Not merely can we afford a long-range policy; we can at the same time recognize the identity between the progressive economy and the greater humanity of such a policy.

It will be interesting to watch the ways in which this socialized viewpoint works out in the later, matured plans of work on the Henry Bergh Foundation.

ACCIDENT INSURANCE IN A REPUBLIC

LEE K. FRANKEL

The bills providing state accident and sickness insurance which have been passed by the National Council (lower house of the Federal Council) and are now before the Senate of Switzerland, are of particular interest at this stage of the discussion of insurance as a social rather than a commercial enterprise. The Swiss bills bear a more direct relation to the study of insurance in this country than did the legislation in monarchical Europe for, like the United States, Switzerland is a republic with a mixed population. Different cantons are predominantly German, French, Italian and, at least in one, there is a remnant of the old Roumansch.

But in legislation for protection against industrial accidents there is a sharp contrast. In the United States the old common law doctrine holds, while Switzerland was one of the first countries in Europe to clearly embody in its law the principle of compensation. As early as 1875 a federal law placed on railroad and

steamship companies responsibility for accidents to employes regardless of the fault of the employer. Work in factories was provisionally added by a law passed in 1877 and confirmed in 1881. Other industries, particularly building, transportation, technical installation, railway, street and bridge operations, and quarries, were included in 1887; the postal service in 1894, industries involving electrical installation in 1902.

Discussion of the liability laws had, as early as 1881, brought up consideration of the value of an insurance scheme for workingmen. Official reports made in 1885 and in 1887 led, in 1890, to the adoption of a noteworthy amendment to the constitution:

The confederation shall by legislation establish sickness and accident insurance with due regard to the existing sickness societies. It may declare membership obligatory in all or certain classes of the population.

That the people were ready for compulsory insurance was clearly proved by the

referendum vote on the clause—285,228 for it, to 92,200 against—but bills covering sickness and accident insurance, with a special provision for the army, were overwhelmingly defeated at the referendum vote of 1899.

Study of the situation developed the opinion that the vote was less against the principle involved than against the particular bill referred to the people. It seemed to threaten the existing sickness societies which had developed widely; to take in so many classes of the population, particularly those engaged in agriculture and forestry, as to involve very heavy expenditures; and the benefits were so much smaller than those paid under the liability law that the working people voted in opposition.

No further move was made until 1906 when a special commission was appointed to study the question. The report of this commission forms the insurance scheme now before the Federal Council which, it is believed, will be enacted into law.

The commission, after careful study, recommends the Austrian plan of a central insurance department, monopolistic in character, in preference to the German system of mutual trade societies. It has followed Austria again in exacting contributions from workingmen as well as from employers, but it has gone beyond all other countries in recognizing the obligation of the state. The present bill proposes that the government shall contribute one-half per cent of the total wages of those who are insured. Of the balance of the premium necessary to maintain insurance, the employer is to pay three-fourths and the employee one-fourth, but, in view of the fact that all forms of accidents are included, it was provided that if the proportion of non-industrial to industrial accidents proves larger than the proportion of the contribution by both workingmen and government, the contribution of the men may be increased or the benefits be reduced. It was estimated that non-industrial accidents will number thirteen per cent of all accidents and require eighteen per cent of the total benefit payments.

Administration is to be in the hands of

a state insurance department, with a director appointed by the Federal Council on recommendation of the council of the department. The latter comprises sixteen representatives of employers, six of workingmen, eight of the government and an unspecified number, not to exceed one-third of the membership, representing those who voluntarily insure themselves under an act which is primarily a compulsory measure for industrial workers.

The finances of the department are placed on a generous footing. Of the proposed appropriation of ten million francs, seven million are to be permanently invested to secure an income for administration, the other three million to establish a reserve fund from which not more than one million a year may be used to meet deficits. The government proposes to pay additionally the expense of organizing and one-quarter of the administration expense. The department pays no taxes and has free use of the postal service.

The most striking feature of the bill is the provision by which the department may contract with the local sickness societies to collect premiums, pay benefits and have general supervision of all accident cases. It may reinsure certain classes of risks with them. The arrangement will guard against overlapping and simulation and avoid the damage worked to the friendly societies in England by the existing law.

The insurance department has broad powers—to set up tables of premiums for different industries, to require the employer to make advance premium payments on the basis of wages paid during the previous year, to establish regulations and require safety devices for the prevention of accidents, to call on the co-operation of the factory inspectors, to establish legal fees for physicians among whom the insured may choose any who is a licensed practitioner, and in general to have a free hand for the effective management of the big enterprise. The exact amounts of benefits to insured men, their families and heirs, the assurance of payment of workingmen's premiums through

wage deductions, and every detail are covered in the bill.

Insurance is paid for all accidents resulting in sickness, permanent invalidism or death. It includes medical treatment and appliances and even the cost of transportation when necessary. Sickness benefits amount to eighty per cent of the man's daily wages, or in case he receives insurance from other sources, to a total not greater than his wages. For permanent disability, an invalidity pension of seventy per cent of his yearly wages is substituted for the larger benefit. For death from accident the department pays the cost of burial and a pension of not more than sixty per cent of the average yearly wages.

As the bills stand now, insurance against sickness is not compulsory by the government, but by an application of the principle of local option it may be made compulsory by any canton or commune. This part of the scheme is to be worked entirely through the sickness societies. Among the most interesting of its provisions is that granting the usual sickness benefit to a woman during confinement,

and for as long a time after recovery as the law prohibits her from working.

Accident insurance is compulsory for employes or workmen on railways, steamships, in the post office, and in industries coming under the law of 1877 (mentioned above); workmen engaged in the manufacture of explosives; and, if more than five are employed, workmen employed in the building trades, transportation, shipping construction and repair of telephone and telegraph systems, machines and installations of a technical nature, construction of railways, tunnels, streets, bridges, water mains, etc., and in the development of mines and quarries. Apprentices are included.

In addition to the compulsory insurance there is a provision for voluntary insurance, with a government contribution of one-half per cent of the wages, for those engaged in agriculture, forestry, small trades, commerce, hotels, home work, domestic service and day labor; and permission for voluntary insurance, without a government contribution, for any Swiss citizen over fourteen years of age.

THE TREND OF THINGS

About five years ago when this magazine instituted an educational campaign against tuberculosis, the prediction was ventured that our readers would resent continued publicity of this nature and that new subscribers would be repelled by discussions of the dangers and methods of prevention of consumption. A regular tuberculosis department was inaugurated, however, and proved successful.

Interest in the subject first shown by readers of *Charities and The Commons* might have been accounted for by the fact that our subscription list was made up to a large extent of picked groups of readers whose work called for knowledge of the subject. But when tuberculosis exhibits were organized all over the country and newspapers and popular magazines took up the subject, there followed a genuine and surprising demand for information about the disease.

Philip P. Jacobs of the National Association for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis has just issued a statement based on newspaper clippings received in his office, to the effect that half a mile of material about tuberculosis is being printed weekly. And now the *Metropolitan Magazine* announces a

series of three articles by O. F. Lewis of the New York Charity Organization Society on The War on the White Death. The first article, appearing in the April number, outlined the disease and its causes. Mr. Lewis has assembled concisely and convincingly the main facts regarding the extent of tuberculosis and the ways in which it is communicated. Simple methods of treatment, racial tendencies to the white death, the relation of occupation to tuberculosis, the cost to society of the disease, are other topics graphically treated. The second article, in the May number, is entitled The Treatment of Tuberculosis, and the concluding one, in June, The Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The articles are being widely advertised by posters and street car advertisements, and are attracting considerable attention. The Modern Woodmen of America are making arrangements to publish them in full in their monthly journal, which goes to over a million homes. The numerous photographs are from the International Tuberculosis Exhibition.

If tuberculosis is to be eradicated in ten years, as some leading physicians say, this

weapon of publicity will certainly play a big part.

* * *

Speaking of the value of publicity, a rather interesting experiment has just been made by THE SURVEY in finding out actual results accomplished by the widespread county jail investigation conducted just a year ago. About four hundred of these institutions were investigated by the American Prison Association with the co-operation of the Press Bureau of this magazine. Recently we sent out letters to some of the investigators asking them if there had been tangible results. Here are a few sentences from the replies:

"The influence of your reports has been most helpful for it has given accent to the state work and support to the workers for the state and it has helped in making better feeling in the jailer for the prisoner. For he understands that many are looking on and expecting results from his personal efforts. I am happy to tell you that the reports helped to make our jail better."—Metropolis, Illinois.

"Since your investigation the jail in my county has shown general improvement and your article had a good effect."—Tarboro, N. C.

"Since the inspection of a year ago the prisoners no longer go to their cells in the clothing which they are wearing at the time of their arrest. The jail now uses a receiving-room, the prisoners' clothing being changed to overalls and jumper which belong to the jail."—Denver, Colorado.

"As a result of many years' labor, of which the work you did was a part, I am glad to inform your organization that there is in course of construction in this city a modern jail. To my mind it is a distinct triumph for the persistent effort on the part of yours and like societies on truly philanthropic lines."—Youngstown, Ohio.

"I am pleased to report that practical good has come from the investigation into the conditions of our county jail. Considerable publicity was given to the jail since our report and better sanitation and sewage has been a result."—Salem, Oregon.

"Your article was published in the local papers here and I have no doubt did good. A number of citizens were called to discuss the matter and are interested in the work."—Grantsville, West Va.

"Your report was published in one or more of our county papers and the fact that I made an investigation and that the results were published helped to better conditions."—Rockville, Md.

"I am of the opinion that these investigations will be of great help in keeping better conditions in our jails and almshouses."—Capron, Va.

* * *

An expert advertiser in St. Louis, Mo., reckons advertising as a strong economic

force for good or for evil. Its good effects, if properly used, are in raising the standard of living by increasing the demand and the production of commodities, and thus cheapening their cost of production and enabling more to obtain them. He also predicts that advertising will become a great factor in social reform. Publicity as a popular educator is unexcelled. When people all know what is good for them, they do it. Moving picture shows, street car signs, and attractive posters and exhibits are more effective than a press in whose sincerity people have lost confidence.

* * *

The Provident Association of St. Louis has just issued the fourth edition of the Directory of Charities and Philanthropies. The first directory (88 pages) was published in 1902 and other editions appeared in 1905 and 1907. The new volume contains 200 pages. It is well printed and conveniently classified. There are eleven divisions of societies and organizations, and an appendix containing a summary of laws of interest to St. Louis social workers and numerous recommendations for the proper disposal of applicants for charitable aid. In cloth the book costs fifty cents and in paper thirty-five cents. It may be obtained by addressing the publishers at 1,623 Washington avenue, St. Louis.

* * *

About every man with a fad, and a man with a profession is pretty apt to be a man with a fad, is inclined to think that his particular establishment or method of business or means of reform is just about the best obtainable. Mr. Roosevelt has an editorial for that man in *The Outlook* for April 10:

"The best lesson that any people can learn is that there is no patent cure-all which will make the body politic perfect, and that any man who is able glibly to answer every question as to how to deal with the evils of the body politic is at best a foolish visionary and at worst an evil-minded quack. Neither doctrinaire socialism, nor unrestricted individualism, nor any other ism, will bring about the millennium. In the last analysis the welfare of a nation depends on its having throughout a healthy development. A healthy social system must of necessity represent the sum of very many moral, intellectual, and economic forces, and each such force must depend in its turn partly upon the whole system; and all these many forces are needed to develop a high grade of character in the individual men and women who make up the nation. No individual man could be kept healthy by living in accordance with a plan which took cognizance only of one set of muscles or one organ; his health must depend upon his general bodily vigor, that is, upon the general care which affects the many different organs according to their separate needs."

COMMUNICATIONS

CIVIL SERVICE IN ILLINOIS¹

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to take exception to your comment under the heading Civil Service for Attendants in *Charities and The Commons* of March 20. You did what I am sure was an unintentional injustice to Illinois at least. Here attendants are under civil service. For three years the women's clubs of Illinois, the newspapers and the State Civil Service Commission have been advertising these positions. Our applicants come from the farms and the high schools. Where there is no civil service many undesirables perforce creep in. We give a strict physical examination and written examinations on common school requirements and qualifications. We keep a close check on applicants and employes. The hospital tramp gets little consideration. The superintendents have the right of removal and the commission sustains them. In fact in Illinois it is easier for a superintendent to discharge an unsatisfactory employe and keep him out of the service than in any other state in the union.

Permit me also to call your attention to a fact that any experienced civil service man will confirm; there is more political use made of the laborers, domestics, attendants and poorly paid classes in the public service than in the better paid positions. After three years' experience in assisting in the administration of the Illinois law where an earnest effort has been made to solve this problem, I say without hesitation that there is no class of employes in the public service in which there is so much necessity for protection as in the attendants.

JOSEPH C. MASON.

Secretary Illinois Civil Service Commission.

[The editor of the Department on Dependents and Defectives congratulates Illinois upon her civil service system, which seems to secure the benefits of the plan without the embarrassment that too often attends upon it elsewhere.]

SUMMARY OF SOCIAL FORCES

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to extend my hearty congratulations on your altogether admirable article on social forces in the April 10 issue of *THE SURVEY*. I have read many articles and books on that subject, and its collateral subjects, have casually done a bit of work on those lines myself, and am personally acquainted with many men and women identified with social betterment work, but I have never before read or heard the comprehensive and complex subject of social forces so completely and convincingly summarized as in your leader. As a rule, I think, there is

¹Communication written to Alexander Johnson, department editor *THE SURVEY*.

an overplay of the emotional, impracticable, in the addresses and papers on those lines, but to me every line of your article rings true and clear, and I have filed it away as my ideal of what such an abstract should be. I suppose I have 200 exchanges of all kinds on my list, but none which appeals to me quite as strongly as *THE SURVEY*.

EDWARD BUNNELL PHELPS.

New York.

MORITURI TE SALUTAMUS

TO THE EDITOR:

Before *Charities and The Commons* hobbles quite off the stage with that heavy incubus of title, I want to express my appreciation of the remarkable wealth of social material and stimulus that has filled its pages in the past years. I think we who are deeply interested sometimes take too much for granted of one another, saving our words of encouragement for comparative outsiders whose zeal we fear might flag without such stimulus. So saw wood. We appreciate even though we don't shout.

The remarks are to whom it may concern: The editor may take as much of the credit as his conscience will permit—there is abundance for everybody.

HERBERT S. BROWN.

New York.

JOTTINGS

Planting Lesson for Spring Gardeners.—The Department of School Gardens of New York University of which Henry G. Parsons is director, announces a "planting lesson" to be given during the first week of May, providing the registration is large enough. A fifty cent fee will be charged which will be returned if a sufficient number do not register by May 1. Planting will be allowed in the model garden and a lecture will be given. The New York University gardens are at 180th street and Aqueduct avenue. Notice of the day set for the lesson will be sent to all who register.

General Alliance, Workers with Boys.—The General Alliance of Workers with Boys will hold its annual meeting with the Germantown, Pa., Boys' Club, on Thursday and Friday, April 29 and 30.

Jewish Farmers Organize in Connecticut.—With a threefold purpose the Jewish farmers of Ankersville, Conn., have organized an association to extend a helping hand in times of illness; to arbitrate whenever dispute arises between one Jewish farmer and another, and lastly, to fight against unjust taxation.

Athletic Games

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By ROBERT COIT CHAPIN, Ph.D.

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That present incomes are, in many cases, not sufficient to enable a family of five in New York city to maintain a proper standard of living, is abundantly proved by the clear and convincing records of this investigation.

For purposes of comparison investigations were also carried on in Buffalo, and in nine other cities and towns of New York state. The results of these investigations are to be found in Appendices IV and V.

Other Appendices include the report of Mr. Frank Tucker, which resulted in the standard of living investigations; the preliminary report of Dr. Lee K. Frankel, chairman of the special committee of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction which carried on these investigations; a report on nutrition by Dr. Frank P. Underhill of Yale University; a translation of a family monograph by Frederic LePlay, the French Social economist; and a bibliography.

One hundred and thirty-one statistical tables and sixteen diagrams, prepared by experts, add to the value of the report as a reference book and a guide to future investigations of this nature.

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MAY 1, 1909

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

"ONCE UPON A TIME THE CITIZENS OF A CERTAIN CITY IN GREECE WERE GREATLY INTERESTED IN THE NURTURE AND TRAINING OF CHILDREN. WHEN THE QUESTION AROSE AS TO WHETHER THEY SHOULD BUILD A GREAT PUBLIC SCHOOL OR OPEN A PLAYGROUND, IT WAS DECIDED TO OPEN A PLAYGROUND. NOW, IN THE COURSE OF YEARS, IT CAME TO



PASS THAT THE CITIZENS OF THAT CITY ADVANCED SO FAR BEYOND THE REST OF THE HUMAN RACE, THAT IN ALL THE CENTURIES SINCE, EVEN TO THIS DAY, THE NATIONS THAT HAVE GONE ON BUILDING PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND NEGLECTING TO OPEN PLAYGROUNDS HAVE NOT BEEN ABLE TO CATCH UP WITH THEM."

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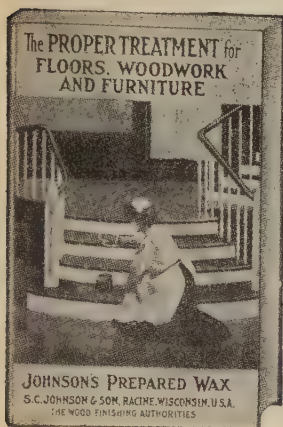
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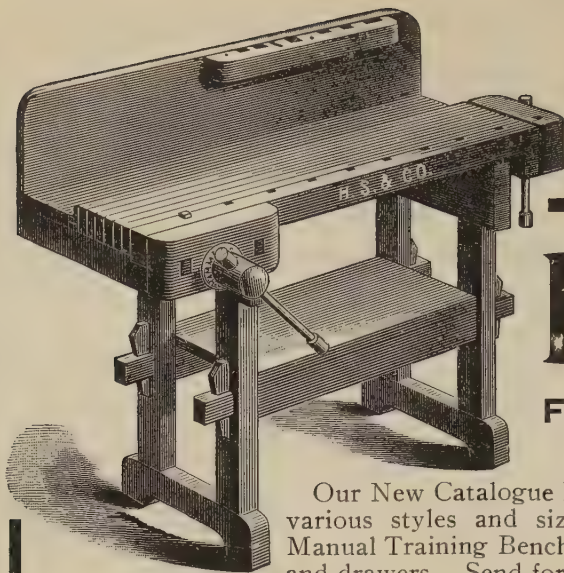
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE MAID OF ORLEANS: A SAINT OF THE CHURCH

We are lost—we have burned a saint.—An English soldier in 1431.

The one pure figure which rises out of the greed, the selfishness, the skepticism of the time.—John Richard Green.

Her heart was cast into the Seine, but it still beats in the pulse of Christendom.

—Michael Kenny, S. J., in *America*, a Catholic Review.

Protestant and dissenter may well give deep and silent approval in their hearts, when the Church of Rome by solemn pronouncement, in strict accordance with its ancient traditions, after due and formal scrutiny of all the evidence, beatifies the peasant maid of France, calling upon all its faithful children to do her reverence, even as she herself did reverence five centuries ago to St. Michael, the Warrior Archangel, St. Margaret and St. Catherine, whose voices gave her guidance in her village home, at the court of France, in the strategy of war and at the stake.

In declaring this maid worthy of a place among the blessed saints, as having displayed in a heroic degree the virtues of faith and hope, charity and chastity, justice and fortitude, Pius X does but adopt and confirm the judgment of her contemporaries, friend and foe alike, and of those who since then have studied and pondered upon her strange and thrilling career.

How many excellent arguments could have been presented to her for remaining quietly in Domremy in that dark hour when the Voices bade her go crown the dauphin! She might have been told that it was an interesting and picturesque but impracticable mission. Orleans, the last remaining stronghold, was about to fall. It was not a French year. There were no precedents. If she failed, as of course she would, she would bring ridicule upon her family, and even discredit upon the religion by whose mandate she professed to be about to act. Better undertake something reasonable and practical, like dressing the wounds of the straggling soldiers who were an all too familiar spectacle in the streets of her village. These soldiers, indeed, the girl had come to know very well. They had told her of things at the front. She had entered into the spirit of the great struggle in which they had had a part. The sword of an officer was sacred in her eyes, because over the fingers of the boy who had wielded it God himself had clasped His fingers; and who had fought for France had fought for Him. In Heaven itself was pity for the fair realm of France.

To Charles then, she would go, relying implicitly upon her inward vision, obeying in faith the Voices which spoke to her, using with consummate tact and unfailing good sense the instruments which were given her, good humoredly putting aside in the flesh the homage and veneration which soldiers and others would fain have shown her, and which are now at last, with authority, declared to be her due, transforming a rabble into an army, a prince into a king, and a defeated and demoralized fragment of a people into a nation. All this she did. Every attempt to detract from the validity of the explanation which she herself gave of the sources of her strength but adds to the difficulty, already insurmountable, of accounting for her success. She was happy even in her persecution and martyrdom, for it is through these that the historical authenticity of the incidents of her life has been established beyond cavil, and her immortality in the hearts of men assured.

These are piping times of peace. Michael is not our patron saint. Peace advocates demand that even in our struggles against greed, injustice and ignorance—which, alas, must continue for a time—we shall give up military metaphors; that we must think no more of Lucifer, as a foe to be overthrown, with angels and archangels as our allies. The voices of St. Margaret, whose name means the pearl, and of St. Catherine, whose name means purity, may however speak to us the more clearly if it be really true that the clash of war, in the literal sense of fraternal bloodshed, is about to be silenced. Although Jeanne D'Arc is known in history as the warrior maid, obedience to the stern commands of St. Michael being her foremost duty as she saw it, she takes her place in the calendar as one who will forever speak of the power of purity, of the pearl of faith.

Her victories over the English are the negligible incident, the outward form of her mission. Her victories over her own compatriots, over their vices, their follies, their incompetence, their infidelity, are its essence. Singleness of purpose, simplicity of heart, unadulterated loyalty to her high purpose, power to discern the good in the hearts of her people, these were the unfailing sources of her power, as they are the sources of power and influence to this day.

In Ste Jeanne's country the church which claims the right to crown "the matchless maid" by ceremonial in St. Peter's at Rome, has fallen upon troublous times. The cynic may suspect that it is for this reason that this moment is chosen for the beatification of the patriot maiden. Even if it were so it would be difficult to imagine a nobler or more irresistible concession to hostile sentiment. The free church will be stronger, if our American experience is of the slightest significance, than the church which was bound by obsolete treaties to the state. Even stripped of some of her material possessions and her treasured privileges, she may rise to a new influence and a higher spiritual authority. It is at least a most auspicious omen, that she has chosen at this time to exalt, as worthy of veneration, one whose triumphant power was deep rooted in those qualities of character to which all the world increasingly pays reverence.

THE COMMON WELFARE

FATHER KNICKERBOCKER AND HIS CASH REGISTER

There was a conference in New York last week, instigated by the Bureau of Municipal Research, on the city budget of 1910. In a way its function was to take Father Time, or Father Knickerbocker, according to your point of view, by the forelock. The meeting was held in the Colony Club, Robert W. deForest presiding, and taxpayers' organizations, philanthropic societies and public bodies were represented.

The questions before the conference were: What are New York's known school, playground, juvenile court, probation, health, institutional and other community needs? and, Which of these should be met next year by the taxpayers of the greater city? The up-shot of the meeting was the passage of resolutions asking the Board of Estimate and Apportionment (the financial legislature of the city) to fix dates before its summer adjournment for the taxpayers' hearing on budget estimates and the taxpayers' hearing on the tentative budget, requesting that important departmental estimates, the recommendations as to them by the Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics, and the resulting tentative budget be printed in time for study, and authorizing the appointment of a committee to keep the conference informed about budget matters.

Local though the conference was, it aptly illustrates a phase through which American cities are passing in re-ordering their municipal housekeeping arrangements. Estimates as to expenditures for the succeeding year are submitted by heads of New York city departments by July 15. These estimates are criticised by the Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics during the summer months, and this bureau which is under the financial department of the city government, reports to the Board of Es-

timate and Apportionment. Hearings for taxpayers are held by that body in October before it acts upon the budget, but these hearings have customarily been uncertain as to date, jammed with petitioners representing different interests, and generally unsatisfactory.

In 1906, the budget of the city of New York was by more than \$100,000,000 the largest municipal budget in America, and ranked second to none in the obscurity of its provisions. Last year's budget, while still first in magnitude, had advanced immensely in the clarity and precision of its specifications. It is not possible to review here the innovations in methods of accounting, which have brought this about through the co-operation of the Bureau of Municipal Research, Controller Metz and others. But the methods by which public opinion is brought to bear on the large items of expenditure remain as yet helter-skelter and at cross purposes.

As brought out in the conference discussions, the present situation is this: A general undertow of abstract economy, becoming each day more insistent, against the rising tax rate in New York, an undertow which tends in a blind sort of way to suck under all new things needed while not at all likely to clear out old wastes and abuses. On the other hand, sharply defined, special interests, philanthropic and political, clamor for particular ends. The present movement is, in a sense, a beginning toward a reversal of this situation: first, to get at special sources of economy by knowing exactly what money is spent for and attacking things which can be lopped off; and, second, as exemplified by this conference, to get at a broad view of the city's future needs among those who have its best interests at heart, and to set before the budget-making body of the city a coherent and farsighted program of expenditure.

The discussion brought out no little friction—enough to show that co-operation between the agencies represented, if it comes, will be of a live sort. There was the taxpayer who told the representatives of philanthropic agencies that they had myopia, just seeing their own pet projects. It is easier to ask for what you want than to eliminate waste. There was the controller, who said that there are many pleaders for special interests, many grumblers at the high tax rate, but none who comes down to tell where cuts can be made, how they can be made, or why they should be made. There was the former president of the Board of Education, who told the advocates of philanthropic interests that they had no influence whatever with the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. And there were the representatives of organizations, who told of the peremptory refusal of certain officials to receive their suggestions, or of the impregnable circle by which they are sent from departmental offices to controller's office and back without opportunity to present their causes.

DEFINITIONS OF ECONOMY

The most interesting discussions centered upon the question of economy, and before the conference was over the word did not seem so simple or, for that matter, so impossible a proposition as the advocates of some form of it or another would have made it appear. "Sooner or later this truth must be driven home," said one speaker. "We cannot go on appropriating money without cutting out useless expenditures. If the community has not political virility to accomplish this form of economy, it might be a good thing for it to go without for a while until it learns better." Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Committee on Congestion of Population, was quick to challenge this point. Granted that money is wasted now, he asked, should the business men and voters, who are responsible, bear the cost, or shall it be thrown on the children of the poor through failure to make needed expenditures? It is economy to lop off unnecessary new ex-

penditures; but it is false economy to delay purchasing building sites, park sites, or the like, until the city has to buy at a ruinous rate. This was urged by Mr. Marsh in advocating a city plan as a piece of long-headed saving for the future. It is economy to cut out waste; it is even greater economy to eliminate whole ranges of expenditures for hospitals, prisons, police and the like, by making conditions of life such that sickness and crime and poverty are prevented. For instance, Nathan Straus urged that radical action by the Health Department to prohibit the sale of commercially pasteurized milk would save thousands of lives and mean economy for the city's hospital bill. There are payroll economies and building-maintenance economies which should be enforced; but it is not economy but waste to use a plant to only a fraction of its capacity. This was pointed out by the representative of the Public Education Association, who showed that for want of a little extra money, many playgrounds and manual training shops, domestic science kitchens and kindergarten rooms were lying fallow the greater part of the time. And, finally, there was urged the economy to the present taxpayer which would come with the application of a larger justice to the sources of taxation. Thus Walter Laidlaw, secretary of the Federation of Churches, wanted to see all unbuilt-upon areas in New York taxed to the limit of their selling values.

But apart from the definite steps taken thus early to center upon the budget for 1910 the interests of philanthropic and public agencies in New York, the conference was interesting in the glimpses it afforded of the city as an organic whole. Edgar J. Levey discussed just who, in the long run, are affected by the constant pressure upon the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to spend more. Somebody must pay the bills; not merely the great property owner but, in large part, the thousands of rent payers. Above the submerged tenth, who will profit most by various forms of municipal activity for parks, playgrounds, and the like, are the large class of self-supporting, hard-

working people, separated from the other by only a narrow margin. He felt that every additional penny in taxes might mean the pushing over of a certain number of these into poverty and dependence.

That point granted, another speaker showed that not only exaggerated expenditure but niggardly expenditure on the part of the municipality meant the pushing over of self-dependent families into poverty. This was Dr. James Alexander Miller, speaking for the Association of Tuberculosis Clinics, who showed that, while Koch lauded the registration system of the New York Bureau of Health, the system is rendered well-nigh useless because the department has not money enough to visit the cases and some 14,000 out of 23,000 cannot be found. Similarly the Health Department has had to cut down its staff of tuberculosis nurses, and this continued crippling of the home supervision of the tuberculous is bound not only to increase hospital expenditures for advanced cases, but to shatter thousands of self-supporting homes. "I believe this is a doctrine of economy and not of expenditure," said Dr. Miller. "For of all things which reduce the people who are above the submerged tenth to that lower estate, none is so constant a factor as impaired health."

Speaking for the Association of Neighborhood Workers, Gaylord S. White of Union Settlement, developed a somewhat similar idea on its positive side, holding that the first step of the conference was to consider bringing the community up to the standard of a modern, humane and well-ordered city. Studies of standards of living made recently in New York have shown beyond all question that certain incomes are absolutely inadequate if a normal family is to have health, vigor and strong children. Recognition of this fact had meant going down into the pockets of employers and paying more wages. Similarly, we must get at the minimum basis of city life and expenditure. By way of illustration, he gave several instances of increased expenditure under headings of health, recreation and education. For instance, adequate fumigation of tuberculosis cases—which meant more money for the Board of Health. In a

recent case, a settlement worker had prevented the sale of a bedstead fairly encrusted with the sputum of the deceased patient.

In other words, while the needs brought out at the conference were fragmentary, they were suggestive. The movement for municipal accounting bids fair to lead not only to closer and closer scrutiny of items of municipal expenditure with an eye to their elimination; but to the formulation of a rounded scheme of a city's outlay, and to the inclusion in it of other and as yet ill-recognized items, necessary to the wholesomeness of living conditions, and essential to those larger economies which can come only when a city becomes a community of the well, the law-abiding and the vigorous.

TWO CONFERENCES ON CITY PLANNING

City planning will be well threshed out this month. An exhibit and conference will be held May 3-16 in New York under the auspices of the Committee on Congestion of Population and the Municipal Art Society, and in Washington May 21 and 22, with President Taft and Ambassador Bryce heading a program of prominent speakers.

The New York conference will be held in the Twenty-second Regiment Armory, Broadway and Sixty-sixth street. The most important aspects of city planning and municipal art will be discussed by experts from many cities, the program and exhibits being keyed up to the congestion committee's slogan "New York and every large American city need a city plan now." The meetings in both cities are a direct outgrowth and logical "follow-up" of last year's congestion show.

In New York, exhibit and program have been divided between the two organizations. The Municipal Art Society will emphasize what has been accomplished in municipal art in New York and other American cities, what New York is doing with its municipal buildings, what the government is doing with federal buildings, the extent of the movement for parks and playgrounds, im-

provements in methods of street lighting, and public monuments and foliage in relation to street plan.

The Committee on Congestion of Population, on the other hand, will call attention to economic aspects under the following general heads: housing conditions, transit systems, industrial conditions, the land system, concentration of offices and factories, city planning in American and in foreign cities, and conditions in some American cities. Special exhibits will show the relation between low rents and cheap lands, the increase in land values in various parts of the city, and its effect upon housing conditions.

Thirty American cities will make city planning exhibits, others will be by leading landscape architects, and the city departments will be well represented.

The Washington conference may prove even more important than the one in New York by putting on the city plan movement the stamp of national interest and scope. The call for the meeting is signed by twenty-six men and women, leaders in settlement and charity work, members of Congress, university presidents, lawyers, architects, merchants, newspaper men—a civic roster impressive in length and personnel. Morning and afternoon sessions will be held on Saturday, the president and the British ambassador speaking at the first. In the afternoon there will be a roll call of cities which have developed plans and in most instances business men will indicate the present status of city planning. Invitations to attend have been sent to the mayors of all cities, presidents of chambers of commerce, architects and engineers' societies throughout the country.

A SOCIAL SERVICE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU

The National Employment Exchange, incorporated in New York with a capital of \$100,000, will open an office to-day at 17 State street, at first attempting only a branch for unskilled labor. Later on a general mercantile bureau will be organized in a central part of the city, planned to inspire confidence alike in employers

and employees. Like the Provident Loan Society in pawnbroking, it is to be a business and not a charity, in order to insure its permanence and ultimately to occupy a large field in the community. The purpose, however, is usefulness and the motive philanthropic.

The capital has been subscribed by Jacob H. Schiff, J. P. Morgan, John D. Rockefeller, Russell Sage Foundation, Frederick G. Bourne, Edward S. Harkness, John S. Kennedy, Robert We de Forest, George Blumenthal, George F. Baker, Adolph Lewisohn, Edward H. Harriman, John D. Archbold, Elbert H. Gary, Cornelius N. Bliss, Otto H. Kahn, John R. MacArthur, V. Everit Macy, Paul M. Warburg, Felix M. Warburg, Mortimer L. Schiff, Otto T. Bannard, Francis L. Hine, Isaac L. Seligman, John G. Milburn, William H. Moore, James A. Scrymser and John S. Huyler. The first board of trustees will be Otto T. Bannard, George Blumenthal, Frederick G. Bourne, Robert W. deForest, Francis L. Hine, V. Everit Macy, John R. MacArthur, Jacob H. Schiff and Paul M. Warburg.

ONE WAY BACK TO THE SOIL

Most of the proposed solutions of the Jewish problem are inspired by a desire to get back to the land. All the international movements are committed to this theory. It has been tried in the Argentine Republic by the Baron de Hirsch Fund, the Zionist hopes for its fruition in Palestine and the Ito under Israel Zangwill's leadership is planning settlements in Mexico. While most of these movements are considering ways and means the National Farm School of Doylestown, Pa., is offering a direct solution, so far as its means permit.

The school recently completed its eleventh year of usefulness and sent out eleven Jewish boys, armed with diplomas, to agricultural positions. The demand for boys graduated at this school far exceeds the supply and in consequence the faculty has admitted twenty-five to replace the eleven graduates.

The plant of the National Farm School

consists of a main building, Legal Hall, the necessary outbuildings and barns, and three adjacent farms which have been given by Max Schoenfeld at a total cost of \$25,000. Improvements during the past year include new greenhouses, wagon sheds and an artificial lake.

The school tries particularly to reach boys in crowded city districts, to fit them for a life work in scientific agriculture. The students' register indicates that almost sixty per cent come from large cities including a large number from New York. The course of study extends over two years. Besides practical instruction in farm work it includes agricultural chemistry, veterinary science, farm hygiene and instruction in craftsmanship designed to make practical mechanics.

The state of Pennsylvania co-operates in the management of the school by giving a substantial appropriation and using the orchards on the Schoenfeld farms as the experiment station for Buck and Montgomery counties. A number of graduates are employed in the Agricultural Department of the federal government and in various state institutions and the faculty, which is headed by Rabbi Joseph Krauskopf of Philadelphia, feels that it is making a practical contribution to the solution of the Jewish problem. Just now there is a special course of lectures by some of the most prominent authorities in forestry and agriculture, and within the coming year the school hopes further to increase its activities.

EVENING COURSE IN PHILANTHROPY

Beginning next October the New York School of Philanthropy will conduct in addition to its present courses a special extension evening course of sixty lectures. The class will meet two hours one evening a week for thirty weeks. The lectures will be divided into four groups of fifteen, each treating some important department of social work, and will be given, for the most part, by executive officials of societies doing such work. The course is offered at the request of the Society of Jewish Social Workers of Greater New York, which raised a guaranty fund of \$1,000. It will be primarily

for active workers who are employed during the day, and unable to attend the regular courses, but it will be open to properly qualified persons. A small registration fee will be charged to those admitted, an examination given and a certificate awarded those who complete the work. The lectures will be given in the rooms of the School of Philanthropy, United Charities Building. Announcements of dates and program may be expected soon, and in the meantime inquiries may be made of the director of the school, 105 East 22d street. The unusual success of a series of lectures held at the United Hebrew Charities the past winter, under the auspices of the Society of Jewish Social Workers, led that organization to propose a larger course, which the School of Philanthropy will organize.

ATTEMPT TO DEAL WITH CONGESTION

"To turn the tide of New York's congested millions back to the land and to show them how to earn a livelihood and rear their children amid sunshine, wholesome work and decent morals," is the purpose of the Suburban Farms Association recently organized in New York. An option has been secured on a large tract of land near the city suitable for division into small farming tracts. The association proposes to aid the colonists in preparing the land for residence and cultivation and to give correct information and instruction to those taking land.

The movement is not planned, in its first stages at least, for every man that feels a desire to "farm it." Only men with growing families with incomes of from \$1,500 to \$1,200 who have saved a few hundred dollars and whose prospects are discouraging will be considered. Property will not be sold unless the purchaser can, with the association's help, live from the land. The prospectus which the company has issued states that "all loans on permanent improvement will be placed in the same contract as the sale of the land, and a stipulated annual payment designated which will, at rates little above city rent, pay for the land and buildings in from ten to twenty years. We shall encourage this type of

contract rather than direct sales of land because of the permanency that will thus be given to the personnel of the colony."

Purchasers will be financially assisted in building, clearing and producing crops. Co-operation will be encouraged in buying supplies and in other common enterprises. "The distinctive feature of the plans of the Suburban Farms Association is that it brings together under one management the projects of land sale, building loans, agricultural education and co-operation in the growing and marketing of crops."

Bolton Hall is at the head of the association.

PEACE SOCIETIES TO MEET IN CHICAGO

The second national conference of the American Peace Society is to be held at Chicago next week under auspicious conditions. The grim ferocity of the war in Turkey furnishes a background dark enough to make every argument for peace stand out in letters of light. The secretary of war in the new cabinet prepared the way by a notable plea for peace delivered before the principal political club of the city a fortnight ago. The Association of Commerce, the most representative and influential commercial body in Chicago, shares with the local committee of the Peace Society the honor of extending the hospitality of the city to the delegates. The churches, not only of Chicago, but of the whole land, will ring with the note of "peace on earth" from pulpit and choir. Organized labor has been foremost in planning to observe the occasion by peace meetings under the auspices of the unions, and by participating in the program on which President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor represents the trade unions. The socialists have done much to add distinctiveness to the occasion. Besides doing their best to make it interesting and significant to the workers, the *Chicago Daily Socialist* for May 2 will be a special peace issue in which leaders of the movement in many lands will describe the stand which labor is taking against militarism and for international peace.

The distinguished and representative people on the program assure the national and international significance of the occasion.

PRESIDENT ANGELL, EDUCATOR OF THE STATE

The striking and well-deserved tribute to President Angell as a builder of democracy which appears in this issue, is welcome to our columns. If it is true that democracy comes to its own only through education, it is as true that educators fulfill their highest function and round out their own best development in democratizing the spirit and results of education.

Nowhere is the community of interests between learning and life, intellectual and material progress, the school and the community so vitally recognized and practically expressed as in the state universities, and by the people of those states which most liberally support them. No one has contributed so much to make this a fact throughout the West as President Angell. Wherever in the rapidly developing scale of state universities the University of Michigan may hereafter find itself, none of the others will fail to recognize that the high type was set and the right standards were fixed for all of them by President Angell at Ann Arbor.

Occasion is taken at the appearance of this appreciation to reassert the emphasis which THE SURVEY will steadily maintain upon the academic standards of its work within its chosen spheres of life and action. The results of this work in these pages should be all the more interesting and readable because of the self-exactions thus imposed upon the writers and editors of our staff. The actual influence of the facts here presented and the critical or constructive survey of situations or movements here made ought to be all the more effective on this account. No more interesting and inspiring relationships fall within our field than those between the university classroom teachings in political science, economics and sociology and present movements in the political, economic, and social life of the people. In manning this whole field for

the up-building of democracy we can have no higher ideal for our own contribution toward that end than to emulate the spirit and the achievement of President Angell.

CATCHING UP WITH ATHENS

GEORGE E. JOHNSON

Superintendent Pittsburgh Playground Association

Once upon a time the citizens of a certain city were greatly interested in the nurture and training of children. When the question arose as to whether they should build a great public school or open a playground it was decided to open a playground. Now, in the course of years, it came to pass that the citizens of that city advanced so far beyond the rest of the human race, that in all the centuries since, even to this day, the nations that have gone on building public schools and neglecting to open playgrounds have not been able to catch up with them.

This is fact, not fancy. At seven years of age the Athenian lad entered the *palaestra*, which was essentially a playground. All the first and better half of the day was spent in gymnastics, dancing, games and play. In the afternoon there were singing, some writing (the beginners wrote in the sand box or in sand strewn upon the ground), some reading, all in the open air, and then came a long period of play again.

Such was the schooling of the Greek lad up to the age of ten or eleven, and it did not differ essentially up to sixteen except in the severity of the exercise. Yet the world has not ceased to marvel at the results of Greek education. It produced the highest type of man, physically and intellectually, that the world has ever seen—a type which Galton says was as far in advance of the modern Englishman as the modern Englishman is in advance of the native African. In physical beauty, courage and patriotism, in philosophy, literature, architecture and art, the Greeks have been the unsurpassed models of the ages, and remain the inspiration of our schools today. But they placed the emphasis upon hygiene, exercise, games and play, which we neglect, if we do not

ignore. They cared for the strong and sometimes left the weak to perish; we care tenderly for the weak and often leave the strong to perish.

This is fact, not fancy. In the state where I had the privilege of acquiring most of my experience in educational work, to obtain the best educational advantages a child must be blind, deaf, feeble-minded, incorrigible or a truant. Then he is given exercise, playgrounds, gymnasiums, baths, fresh air in abundance, gardens and play shops. The great majority of normal children get along the best they can without them. Now in several cities we have open-air schools for children with a tendency to tuberculosis, so consumption seems to be another of the list of ills, one of which a child must have in order to enjoy the best educational advantages. I am not disapproving of this care for the weak—I believe in it with all my heart. But this we should have done, and not left the other undone. Thousands and thousands of children in the regular schools of Pittsburgh have no place to play, no recess, no really fresh air to breathe, little sunshine and less genuine, life-giving exercise.

We have reversed the order of importance in education as it was observed by the Greeks. Greek education was essentially a playground education and the education most nearly approaching it today is that supplied by the playgrounds of America. To that classic demonstration of the educational value of the playground has been added in our day an avalanche of testimony from biology, physiology, anthropology, psychology, and sociology. Of the \$10,000,000 playgrounds of Chicago, President Roosevelt says: "They are the greatest civic achievement the world has ever seen."

We need to confess to ourselves that we do not take good care of our children. In this care, in the very nature of the case, the playground has a prominent part. The playground is not a new experiment. We have the classic playground along with classic literature, architecture and art.

Just as we have awakened to the fact that the school provides but a small frac-

tion of a child's education; that environment, which includes everything that comes into the child's experience, is teaching him every waking moment of the day (perhaps every sleeping hour of the night, if we agree with Dr. Worcester), so we have come to understand that the activities of the school provide but a small fraction of the exercise necessary for the health of a child in this larger meaning. In the long process of the race have been tried and found good, have been refined and passed on, every organ and instinct with which a normal child is born; and some yet higher function, some yet nobler conduct, shall spring from their roots. Not in the school but on the playground can these deep instincts of workmanship: imitation, rivalry, co-operation, find their true and genetic expression and build more stately mansions in the soul.

AMPUTATING THE BLACK HAND¹

ARTHUR H. WARNER

"If thy right hand offend thee, cut it off."

This is the scriptural injunction, and if it is good doctrine for the individual body it is equally so for the body politic—if it applies to an offending right hand, it applies also to an offending Black Hand.

But how? Since the assassination at Palermo of Joseph Petrosino, a lieutenant in the New York Police Department, the authorities of all our cities have been called upon to act, but the demand will be as futile as others that have gone before it unless the way as well as the wish is presented.

The public ought to realize, if it is serious in desiring to see the Black Hand suppressed, that the police force of our cities, as constituted, is incapable of meeting the problem. Crime in America is growing complex in proportion as our population is growing so, and it is time that we appreciated the need of adapting our police departments to changing conditions.

¹In THE SURVEY for April 3 Gino C. Speranza presented an interesting Italian viewpoint of the Petrosino assassination. Copies may be obtained at 25 cents each.

Let us take New York city as an instance, because with the largest and most helpless Italian population in the country the Black Hand has been seen there at its worst.

New York has an estimated population of four and a half millions. Of this number from half to three-quarters of a million are of the Italian race—at least one out of every eight men, women and children who walk its streets. These people are not "the scum of Europe." They are from one of the most industrious, thrifty, temperate and hardy peasant stocks in the world, but they are unlettered and inexperienced. Excepting the children, they understand English imperfectly and American ways hardly at all. Hence they find it desirable, if not necessary, to live in colonies of their own, which are in fact foreign cities in the midst of the American metropolis.

Now what has been done to protect and control these foreign quarters? The New York police numbers 10,000 men, but out of this army only about fifty are Italian, and many of these are American born, unacquainted with the dialects of southern Italy and from families which are out of touch with life in the local colonies.

The consequence is that New York has become a paradise for the Italian criminal. The average policeman of Irish or German descent is as helpless to deal with conditions as an American traveller set down for the first time in Naples or Milan. A Black Hand plot may be hatched out under his very face and he be none the wiser. Under existing conditions the residents of the Italian quarters are at the mercy of any blackmailers who elect to prey upon them. Sometimes surprise is manifested because Italians are so unwilling to come forward and testify against the men who are terrorizing them. There is nothing strange about this. Their explanation is that if they set themselves against these gangs vengeance would surely be visited upon them in spite of all the police might promise or attempt in the way of protecting them. And experience has proved that this is so.

If New York had a police force in which Italians were represented accord-

ing to their ratio in the population, there would be not fifty but 1,000 to 1,500 men of that race in it. Probably so large a proportion is unnecessary, but it is certain that the present quota is too small and too little informed. There should be at least a hundred competent Italian detectives, and as many again of that race acting as patrolmen in the Italian districts. The good patrolman knows his neighborhood—he is familiar with the corner loafers, with potential criminals as well as those of record. Moreover, the good patrolman should be something more than a night stick personified. He should be a representative of the law to assist as well as to arrest. This, for the English-speaking, English-thinking policeman in an Italian quarter, is impossible.

Sensational newspapers and the police themselves have given the Black Hand a dignity which it doesn't deserve. There is a tendency to regard it as an organization made up of crafty and experienced criminals whose ways are too deep to fathom. In truth what is called the Black Hand is not an organization at all, but a condition. It is not a single united band, but many scattered ones which would as lief prey on each other as on anybody else.

The idea that Black Handers are bred exclusively in Italy and slip into this country through lax immigration precautions is a myth fostered by police officers anxious to shift responsibility. For every one imported from the other side there is another brought up in this country. The young Italian growing up in New York and absorbing the American passion for "easy money" on one hand, and on the other conscious of the defenceless position of his people, drifts only too readily into crime. Every *caffè* and *ristorante* has its quota of potential Black Handers, young men who understand pool or cards enough better than the average patron so that they make a business of playing for stakes.

Those familiar with Italian life in the United States will probably agree that an adequate Italian police force cannot be recruited here alone. Assistance is needed from men who have had experience in

detective work among their countrymen on the other side.

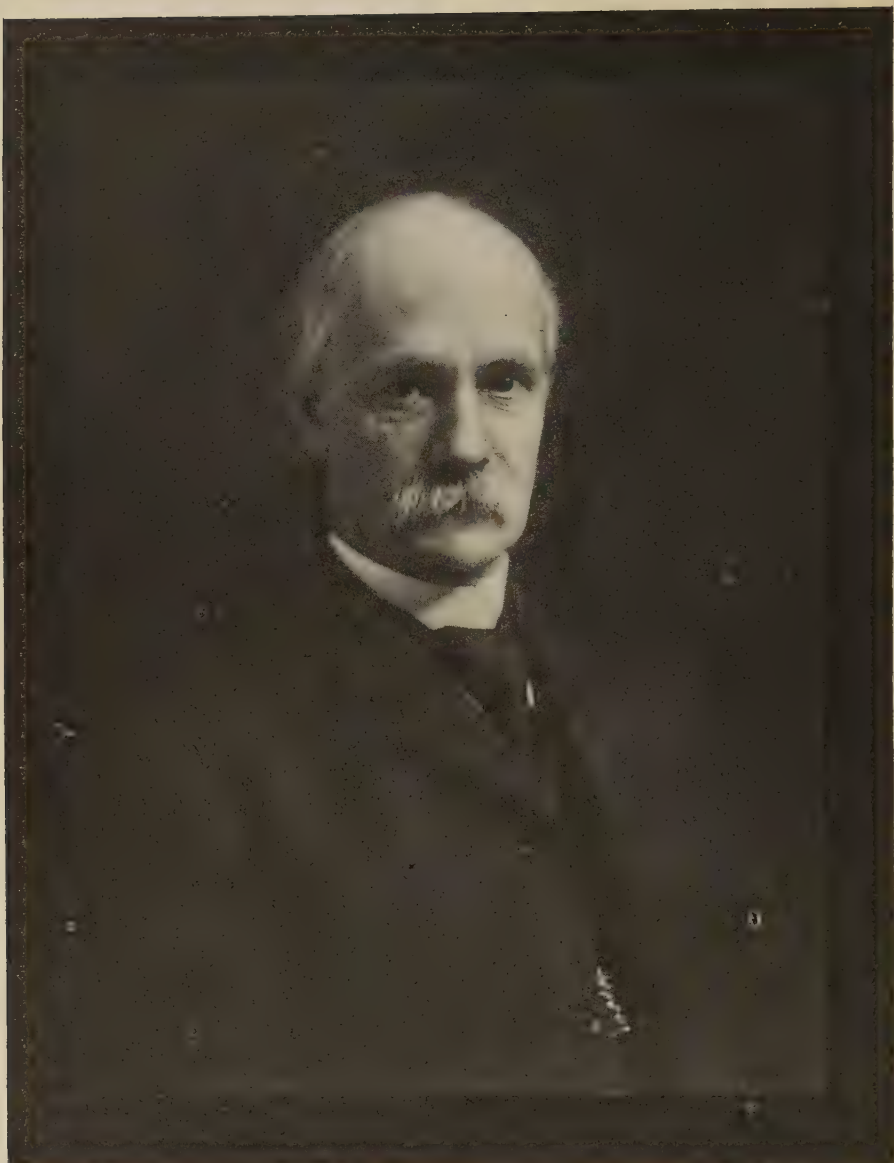
The way of meeting the problem, therefore, would seem to be to send to Italy for at least the nucleus of a foreign squad. Such men might be obtained from the ranks of *carabinieri* whose terms of service have expired. The *carabinieri*—the Italian state police—are picked men physically and mentally, capable of dealing with crime in their own, and presumably in this country. It is true that the Mafia and the Camorra exist in Italy in spite of their efforts, but this is because those organizations are at bottom political, living by grace of protection "higher up," just as certain crime flourishes unmolested in New York through the benignity of Tammany Hall.

If the New York Police Department could secure fifty competent men from Italy it would probably be a sufficient number upon which to build up an efficient Italian force. To do this an amendment to the charter would doubtless be necessary, as the appointees would have to be excepted from existing civil service examinations. The present effort to revise the charter offers an excellent opportunity to obtain the necessary action.

The attempt, of course, should be to secure authority for a foreign rather than an exclusively Italian squad. At the present time there is no apparent need for men from any other country, but with a growing and changing immigration nobody can tell when there may be. Indeed incipient cases of Greek, Magyar and Slavic Black Hand methods have already appeared, and, unless provision is made in time, may grow more serious.

The proposals here suggested may sound unusual, but they are not half as much so as the changes in the police problem that have occurred in New York in the past decade on account of newcoming peoples.

New York has been taken as an example, but her problem differs from that of other large cities only in that it is more immediate and more aggravated. We are building up an international republic on this continent, and unless we shape our institutions accordingly we shall have not a cosmopolitan community but a cosmopolitan chaos.



SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS (1845-1909).

PRESIDENT INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS OF 1910.

After but a week's illness of pneumonia, Samuel June Barrows, corresponding secretary of the New York Prison Association, since 1896 the American representative on the International Prison Commission, and elected-president of its forthcoming quinquennial congress in Washington, died on April 21 at the Presbyterian Hospital, New York. Word of Mr. Barrows's sudden illness was sent to Mrs. Barrows at St. Petersburg, whither she had gone in behalf of Madame Breshkovsky, one of the heroic leaders of the revolutionary movement, who, in her seventieth year, is imprisoned in the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul. A memorial service will be held after Mrs. Barrows has reached this country, and a more extensive review of Mr. Barrows's work as journalist, minister, editor, poet, parliamentarian and prison reformer, will be published in a later issue of *THE SURVEY*. For many years, Mr. Barrows has been a departmental editor of this magazine, and his associates on the staff share in a personal way in the widespread sense of loss in his death.



WEARING OUR WAY

JACOB A. RIIS

Two men stood behind me one morning in March at the brim of the Grand Canyon in Arizona where my travels of the winter had landed me, as it had landed them, apparently for a brief spell of rest. Both were typical Americans, one evidently a successful manufacturer; the other as clearly a teacher, perhaps a professor from some eastern college. They stood together in silence a while before the stupendous chasm, at the bottom of which flowed the Colorado River, a troubled stream, red with the memories of age-long war upon cliff and crag opposing its victorious progress. The scars of the conflict showed there in sandstone, in lime-rock and farthest down in the deep gully worn in hard granite that had fought the battle last and longest but in vain like the rest. Now the silence of exhaustion, of utter desolation and surrender lay upon the canyon. The war was over, the fight had been lost and won—so it seemed.

"But to what purpose?" spoke one of the two. "What waste of energy! The floods that might have wrought wonders have gone. The cliffs are dry. They harbor no living thing. No power is here for man's hand to transmute into magic of manufacture. It is all loss."

"Not so," said the thoughtful one. "The greatest wonder remains; the canyon itself tells of the silent, invisible forces that work the world's great results. This gorge was *worn* in the earth's crust; no cataclysm of nature cracked it. The river bored its way through as the land rose and fell while the Sierras grew, wore it through the thousands and thousands of ages, by a pressure that never let up, with the tools the river carries today, wearing its way as it always did. They tell us that here we can see how the world was made. Yes, and how it is made yet, every day, by the same forces, working so quietly, so imperceptibly, that we never stop to think of it until man in his

greed and folly, to pile up gold he can keep at most the span of a pigmy's days, slays the forest folk that guarded our springs a thousand years and lets loose floods that work waste and desolation. Is the lesson worth nothing?

His words still rang in my ears when I walked with Luther Burbank in his California garden and listened to the account of his patient labors these many years with the spineless cactus that is yet to make the barren desert into a vast cattle range, fit for the home of man; for to both man and beast it will bring food and drink where none was before and it seemed as if none could ever come. In proof of it he plucked a red fruit from a cactus leaf I should as soon have thought of touching as I would poison ivy, and bade me eat what I thought at first taste a ripe and luscious Bartlett pear. As we passed bed after bed of flowers and plants which he was shaping to his will into ways of beauty and use, a constant "how?" rose to my lips. As we stood by the last he answered it, yet unspoken.

"The life of every plant, every flower," he said, "is the sum of all past environment of its kind"—and I had the key. I knew it, for I had tried to fit it before. Environment we have the power to change. The patient forces that dug out the canyon are ours. We, too, can make the world, or help remake it. All these years it has been waiting for us to find it out, ever showing us the way with mute appeal, until at last we know. For if not that, what else is the meaning of our new interest in our forests, our fields, the natural resources we have been wasting? Our plans of irrigation? What else do we aim at with our tenement house laws that seek to conserve the home, our anxious care for childhood rights, than to make over this world into a fairer, fitter place to live in? The very town of Santa Rosa, Luther Burbank's home, bears testimony. Laid prostrate by the earthquake three years ago, it now stands spick and span, built anew with amazing energy and courage, as its greater sister to the south has risen from her ashes until one might travel half a day through the streets of San Francisco and never guess of the great disaster. Mak-

ers of the world are we. It took the Colorado River no one can guess how many millions of years to dig its wasteful way through the high plain of Arizona. Man in three brief summers has repaired the destruction wrought by fire and earthquake. The professor was right: what can we not do with the patient persistence of which the canyon tells?

Traveling back and forth across the land, I applied Luther Burbank's key to what I saw men doing for their kind, and everywhere I found them letting in the light. They are lucky in California in having his birthday to hitch their Arbor Day to. Young and old hail his name with a shout on March 7 when they gather in the schools for exercises that lose nothing by the knowledge that the land they love their own fathers practically made. There is a spirit among its people I wish we could transplant to every state, with their roses and trees. In the little town of Red Bluff, after talking to the high school children, I asked them to sing America, and they stood up and sang it, not one verse but all four, full throat so you could hear them into the heart of town and with never a book between them. I wish they could do that in some schools I knew of at home. If I had my way I wouldn't hoist the flag over any school until they could. With the words still ringing in our ears Mount Shasta itself, white and peerless in its majesty on the blue horizon, seemed to shed its benediction upon us. I know that we took off our hats with a common impulse as we saw it and stood speechless under its spell.

A few days later I sat in Sacramento with the White Crusaders, a band of citizens who are fighting the tuberculosis scourge with a devotion and energy that lay hold of every fair means to serve their end. They are concerned not only with housing conditions and sanitary measures, but with settling the contention between the doctors as to the chance of transferring consumption to man from the cow through her milk, and the steps they took were as bold as they were novel. While I was there the Legislature enacted a law, at the instance of the com-

mittee, permitting experiments for their purpose to be made on murderers under sentence of death. The law (it is law if it has been signed by the governor since) provides that the convict may apply to the State Board of Health for a physical examination and, if found fit, may be recommended for a reprieve for the purpose of such experimenting with the result that when he has come through, his sentence shall be commuted to life imprisonment or to a shorter term, as the governor may decide. Certainly an improvement, even from the murderer's point of view, upon the alternative of being "hanged by the neck until dead."

During the winter I saw California and Indiana pass tenement house laws to head off the slum in their cities and so protect the people's homes upon which we build. In Indiana it was a devoted woman without pull or influence other than her just cause who fought the fight almost alone into the very halls of the Legislature where she found help and backing. Going across into Ohio where I traced the eddies of the Pittsburgh Survey in the aroused conscience on housing and industrial conditions, I found the snug old community of Youngstown, which until now had lived in absolute contentment with itself and its ways, discussing playgrounds as a live interest, and again a woman was directing the current. In Los Angeles, before I went East, they had fixed May Day for their "Help Children Day," with the same purpose, and the help there, I warrant, will take a very practical turn. In Youngstown it hung yet upon the initiative of the mayor in appointing a park or playground commission. In Missouri I had found the whole state stirred by the need of playgrounds, inquiries going on in every city and even in country communities, starting apparently from the State University at Columbia. At Columbus, Ohio, the impetus toward socializing the public schools, as centers for recreation, discussion and social service generally, came from the State University too, though Dr. Washington Gladden's living and preaching in the town gave it a most appropriate setting.

I cannot stop to speak in detail as I

am traveling homeward, and indeed apart from the specific work one heeds the particulars less than the fact. That the work is being done at all is what counts. The details will work out.

In Memphis where they hold the memory of Colonel Waring in honor for sewerage their town and making it safe to live in, I found the vanguard of a little civic army marshaled once more by a woman with children, closing around the public schools and prodding up the authorities from the lethargy of the past. Of a "scholastic population" of some 48,000 it seems that only about 9,000 went to school at all. Even deducting those between sixteen and twenty-one this is a fatal showing, and the authorities who can apply the remedy and are therefore responsible for it, are not to be allowed to forget it. Better than that, the little army of reformers have carried their fight into the newspapers and the people will not be permitted to forget either, until they thoroughly grasp what it all means to Memphis.

I spoke of the forces that dug out the Grand Canyon as persistent and patient. Perhaps I was wrong as to that last. They raged in their day, I know, and it helped. It is a good sign when communities lose patience over mismanagement of their schools. We did that in New York or we should never have got where we are. In Denver I was reminded of that day, when I heard a demand for more schools and for a municipal lodging-house in the same breath. That was quite like New York a dozen or fifteen years ago. And the two are not without the connection that seems obscure at first glimpse: more schools to prevent the making of idlers and tramps of the children drifting in the street; decent lodging for the homeless to prevent the making of more tramps by furnishing that which is only fit for tramps, and as a logical step toward parting the goats from the sheep, so that the tramp may be dealt with as such and the honestly homeless man on his merit. In St. Joseph, Mo., as I came through, I heard the sanitary inspector demanding that the vacant lots which in summer grow up in unsightly weeds be turned over to his

department to be made into potato patches for the poor.

"You give us the lots," was his challenge, "we will find the people to raise the crop. Then they will be a help; now they are a nuisance."

I did not stay to hear the response, but it was in Missouri and as he offered to "show them," I know what I will find if I go back there in the autumn.

I might add much, but I mean this to be the briefest of surveys and I have long outrun my space. One little touch as a finish. Way up in Marquette, on the northern peninsula of Michigan, where I tarried on my journey after sticking three days in a Minnesota snowbank, I found them opening a wonderful gymnasium and hall, club, or what shall I call it, in connection with the Episcopal Church. It was connected with it, for it stood upon land owned by the church and which the church gave, while the town built the house and equipped it. It was not connected with it, though you could go from one to the other, for the heathen was welcome there, if he chose to come, so independent of each other were the two. It was a parish house, and it was not. The rector of the church was prime mover in it all, or it would not have been; but the house committee,

its membership and management, was lay altogether. Therefore church and house, standing resolutely apart, stood all the more firmly together. It was good to see the delight they all took in the opening, young and old. For so the forces which that union set at work will help dig a groove through which for all time they may run together, helping their town and the state so to reshape the environment of the past that all future will be safe.

So we are wearing our way to the light. No bomb, no revolution, did it. None is needed. Just a change of front—looking the other way. They tell us that ever so slight a change in the earth's tipping on its axis brought the glacial period that swallowed up all life in the North as the ice crept down from the pole, inch by inch, foot by foot. When it righted itself again, our present day broke, and the river wore its way through the rock, draining the mighty glaciers. So the dawn of a new humanity in which man, facing toward the ideal of brotherhood, shall do justice and love mercy is upon us now. It is good, when one gets impatient, to remember that these things are so, that though the mills of God grind slowly they grind exceeding small.

ITALIAN-AMERICAN FARMERS

ALICE BENNETT

In an interesting paper read recently before the New York Society for Italian Immigrants William Dean Howells stated that more than 500,000 Italians are living in Greater New York and drew a picture of the potential genius which might be lying dormant in this army of tenement people—suggesting a revival of those arts and crafts which have flourished to such perfection for centuries in Italy. We mentally applauded Mr. Howell's conclusion that these city dwellers should be distributed through country districts where they are bound to become an important factor in our national progress.

This article will deal only with the

farmer or *contadino*. The first to cross off our list will be the black hander who is as far removed from our gentle *contadino* as the wolf is from the lamb. Here the Italian government assists by providing every subject leaving that country with a passport which answers also as a certificate for good or bad character. Every honest Italian treasures this passport as his most valuable possession. It should be carefully read by those contemplating business relations with him. The *mano nera* can find scope for his peculiar talents only in the crowded conditions incident to town life. He is a problem therefore for the police commissioners and courts to wrestle with.



Photograph by Herbert Francis Sherwood,

DOMINICO CONDANTI'S MARKET GARDEN AT SHEEPSHEAD BAY.

The consensus of opinion gathered from the largest employers of Italian farm laborers throughout the United States is that, barring the Chinese, they rank all other nationalities coming to this country. Especially is this true of horticulture and intensive farming. One reason why the Italian farmer gets deflected to the city is owing to a lack of information in Italy pointing explicitly to where opportunity awaits the efficient farmer, the *contadino* comes to friends in one of the overcrowded cities, and with only five or ten dollars capital, he must take the first job that offers. Thus the man who would be invaluable as a farmer becomes a parasite and menace to the city. His health suffers from the overcrowding, lack of outdoor life, and change of diet. As sixty per cent of the Italians who come are *contadini*, some plan should be found to deflect them to the land.

Another reason why previous attempts to colonize Italians have failed is that men who had been trained to trades were sent to the country, while others who had all their lives lived on a farm remained in town. Neither have precautions been taken against mixing men from different provinces. The Italian's patriotism has its geographical limitations. With him *patria* means province. We must remember that United Italy is a matter of too recent date to have taken deep root in her peasant class. And while they are most catholic in their attitude towards the world in general, for an Italian belonging to another province they evince an antipathy amounting almost to aversion. Time doubtless will break these barriers down, but until it does this antagonism must be recognized in any plan of colonization.

About fifteen years ago Christenzo Seragosa, a Sicilian, drifted to Fredonia,

Chautauqua county, New York, as a day laborer. He applied at a canning factory for work for himself and a friend from Buffalo. They were accepted, but owing to a prejudice against

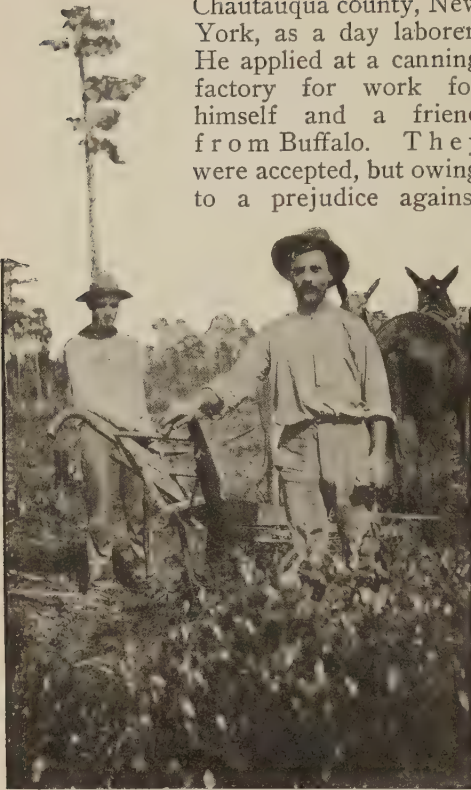
mar schools, ten in the Normal College and two have received diplomas in Buffalo, one is a lawyer, the other a physician. A Roman Catholic church valued at \$25,000 has been built. The foundation was dug and the mason work done free by men of the colony. Fifteen years ago the only industry in Fredonia was one canning factory. Now there are two canneries, six wine cellars and a macaroni factory.

The most prosperous member of the colony is Pietro Elardo who owns 127 acres of vineyard, a large wine cellar and several houses. In a normal year his output is 15,000 gallons of wine, besides about ninety tons of grapes. His six children attend school and the eldest, a lad of sixteen, will soon graduate from the Normal College and become his father's assistant.

The class of Italians under consideration, the countrybred, are so far removed from mendicancy that they will go without the commonest necessities in order to provide for a rainy day. A settlement worker told me of a man of this class, who died from pneumonia without calling in a physician because he had not money enough to pay the fees.

Last year, when so many were out of work, a valuable demonstration in temporary utilization of vacant lots was made by Italians. Little vegetable gardens sprang into existence all around the outskirts of New York city. Often a cabin was built from odds and ends gathered from rubbish heaps. I saw one such cottage which contained a kitchen, two bedrooms, a store-room and a stall for the horse. Where the boards would not join, pieces of tin and oil cloth had been utilized to make it weatherproof. The interior was plastered and painted red. Plants grew under the window. While there are exceptions, as a rule Italian farmhouses are clean and this little cottage was not one of the exceptions.

A group of seven men under the leadership of Dominico Condanti conducted such a garden at Sheephead Bay, covering about two acres. They fenced it round with wire netting, dug a well, bought garden utensils, seeds and a horse



AT THE NORTH CAROLINA COLONY.

Italians they were unable to secure a house within two miles of the factory. Undaunted they moved in and by the end of a year had made themselves so well liked that the numerous Sicilian families which followed found no difficulty in securing houses. The factory attracted them only as a means to an end; what really drew them was the outlying land suited to grape culture. All that they could save from their wages was invested in land and planted out to vineyards. Now there are 1,200 Italians in Fredonia, many of them owning large vineyards. Nearly all have cottages with gardens attached. Their places are well kept, and they have raised the standard of farming in that vicinity—Americans have to hustle to keep up with them. Land which sold ten years ago for \$50 and \$75 an acre cannot now be bought for less than \$250. Three hundred Italian children are in the gram-

and wagon; finally they built a stall from which to sell their product. At the end of seven months, after deducting all outlay including living expenses, they were about sixty-five dollars to the good. Residents at Sheepshead Bay became interested in watching their plucky effort to tide themselves over a season of unemployment, and offers of work were forthcoming sufficient to carry them through the winter while more vacant lots were placed at their disposal for the coming season.

It is unusual for such a settlement to ask for outside aid. Italians are most ambitious to give their children the advantage of good schools and will sacrifice a good deal to help any such enterprise. With some outside assistance the movement to the land could be greatly accelerated. The experiment at Vineland, N. J., became self-supporting in three years' time. A good method for any stock company undertaking such an enterprise would be to sell the immigrants alternate parcels of five acres, the company reserving the rest for appreciation in value. The immigrant could be given employment on the company's land until he had saved enough to start for himself. It would pay such a company to give a fair wage and good returns would be secured on the investment. Any plan for accelerating distribution of Italian *contadini* should be on strictly economic lines and should be put through by private enterprise. A government undertaking of this nature is handicapped in numbers of ways, one of the chief drawbacks being that a public bureau must place all who apply.

R. W. Vincent has given an interesting account of a colonization plan being carried on near Wilmington by the North Carolina Truck Garden Company in which he states that the colonists are affable, hard working and contented with their lot.

Agriculture in Italy is chiefly arboral—grapes, olives, fruit and vegetables. Nearly all the work is done by hand so

that the *contadino* knows almost nothing of the use of live stock, especially horses and cows. It has been thought advisable by an Italian agriculture expert who has studied conditions in the United States for years, that a training school be established to teach Italians the use of machinery and the care of live stock. There should be associated with such a school a bureau of information which would co-operate with the authorities at Ellis Island. The duties of this bureau should be to select immigrants adapted to agriculture, gather information about desirable locations, and act as a clearing house and distributing station. Two classes should be received for training. Those of inferior intelligence could take a two months' course to fit them as farm hands; more capable men a six months' course to prepare them to take charge of large farms, estates and colonization schemes.

This school should become self-supporting at the end of three years. There should be a night school where the immigrant would be taught rudiments of English and civics. Recreation should be an important feature. This bureau should also supply information to employers, advising them how best to handle Italian workmen. The Italian farm hand is bound to become popular with the farmer's wife as he relieves her of all the drudgery she has been used to associate with the "hired man"—he prefers to cook his own food in his own way. His diet is largely spaghetti, fruit and vegetables.

Going back once more to Mr. Howells's happy suggestion, why could there not be one corner in such a training school sacred to some of the old arts and crafts, say those gorgeous brocades worn by the Florentine beauties at Lorenzo de Medici's court, or the Sicilian embroidery now being taught by Miss Amori in New York, or Venetian glass with its lovely Byzantine forms? Surely such an experiment would be well worth while in this crude, new world of ours.



"WEIGHING THE BABY."

A MODEST EXPERIMENT IN FOSTER-MOTHERHOOD

THE WORK OF THE PURE MILK COMMISSION OF THE
CHILDREN'S AID ASSOCIATION OF INDIANAPOLIS¹

HELEN WORTHINGTON ROGERS

Indianapolis last summer for the first time took its place among the twenty and more American cities systematically endeavoring to reduce infant mortality by the organized distribution of pure milk. Beginning with one milk station on June 19, by September 30 the Pure Milk Commission had to its credit four distributing stations in operation; five nurses—four graduates and one assistant—on duty; six examining physicians in bi-weekly attendance; 10,000 bottles of pure milk distributed; 1,700 visits

made by the nurses; 473 examinations by the physicians; \$1,000 expended; over 100 babies under supervision and not one death among the supervised.

Compared with the records of pure milk commissions in great cities, this experiment in foster-motherhood is indeed modest, and has no significance other than the fact that among the children under supervision, many of them suffering from intestinal diseases, the mortality was reduced to zero, and that it was a factor in the general reduction of the city's death rate, for children under five years

¹Photographs by the author.

of age, to one-half that of the preceding season. But these are results of significance to practical workers, and a brief summary of the system by which they were obtained may serve other communities.

The organization of the Pure Milk Commission in Indianapolis is traceable to these factors: to local needs, to the example of other cities, and, back of both, to a quickening sense of obligation toward the children needlessly dying as a result of civic and parental ignorance and neglect. Compared with the death rates quoted by Nathan Straus and John Spargo, those of Indianapolis do not seem appalling. The records of the City Board of Health show a mortality of seventeen per cent for children under five during the last decade—only half that of congested districts in large cities. Yet, even at this low rate, the deaths of 2,466 children under two years of age during this period—1,305 of intestinal diseases—grew significant. And when further examinations showed that although the percentage of deaths from these preventable diseases fell from the yearly average of fifty-three to thirty-nine in the cooler months, it rose as high as eighty-three in July, and further, that sixty per cent of the milk supply upon which these babies depended for existence had been and still was unfit for consumption—the situation was considered sufficiently grave for action.

There were those, of course, who bade us wait for ideal conditions that would involve pure milk for all. But the state and city Boards of Health were already endeavoring to raise the standard of the general milk supply, and as yet the average score made by the 400 dairymen examined was only forty-one points out of the possible 100 required by the government standard. And while these dairymen procrastinated, the babies were dying. Others warned us that many of the babies we might save would better die. But the babies were here—unknown potentialities on whose future we dared not pass judgment; and if in teaching mothers how to care for their children more intelligently, a few possible parasites were saved, we were willing to run the risk

in the confidence that more social good than harm would result.

To our inquiries as to how to begin most wisely, came answers from New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Cleveland, and especially from Rochester with its splendid results in a city of corresponding size (200,000)—answers that were at once inspiration and reproof; reproof in that we had delayed so long in taking our place in the long line of progressive cities; inspiration in that so much might be done with a little money and concentrated effort.

Accordingly in April, Dr. Eugene Buehler, secretary of the city Board of Health, later chairman of the commission, outlined the situation to the children's welfare committee of the Commercial Club, urging speedy organization for reducing the infant mortality of the city during the approaching summer months. The club promptly endorsed the movement, but referred the problem for practical solution to the Children's Aid Association, believing that this was an instance in which private philanthropy might properly lead the way by establishing a satisfactory system with a free hand. This recommendation the association accepted by appointing a new standing committee for the work. This committee, as subsequently organized, was made representative of the city Board of Health, the Commercial Club, the Local Council of Women and the Free Kindergarten Association, to which were added, later, the State Board of Health, the German House, a Catholic organization, and a special sub-committee of three appointed by the Local Council of Women.

The season's task as outlined by this committee, May 1, involved the discovery of a satisfactory milk supply and the establishment of four stations from which this milk might be distributed by trained nurses from the middle of June to the middle of September. The first step was the raising of funds, ultimately derived from three sources: subscriptions received in response to circular letters, collections from the "bottle banks" placed in the stores, and from the sale of milk. The circular letters were sent out in five series: first, to names chosen by mem-

bers of the committee; second, to those failing to respond to the first appeal; third, to club women; fourth, to pastors for presentation in church and Sunday school, and fifth, to physicians, asking for co-operation in reaching the children in their districts. From these sources came a total amount of fourteen hundred dollars.

In view of local conditions, the commission was extremely fortunate in the matter of milk supply, for almost simultaneously with itself a Walker-Gordon Laboratory was established in Indianapolis. After a careful inspection of the

clean milk production is the ideal towards which all health boards are working, and we wished our movement to be in harmony with it. Although the Walker-Gordon milk was the most expensive on the market, it offered a safe supply, there being no "certified" milk in the city. Its cattle were tuberculin tested and of the finest stock; the pastures large and well drained; the barns of the newest construction with cement floors, screened doors and windows, and the King system of ventilation. Every possible care was given throughout the whole process of milking. The cows were carefully



AN OBJECT OF COMMON INTEREST.

plant, both farm and laboratory, this was accepted as the source of supply for the initial season. From the first the commission stood for *pure*, in preference to *purified* (pasteurized) milk, and for *individual*, rather than *group* modifications. Although its immediate function was the distribution of milk to needy babies, the commission recognized its responsibility in creating a general demand for pure milk. Pasteurization may be necessary in large cities but where a pure milk supply is possible, it tends to place a premium on dirty milk by lessening the incentives to clean milk production. This

groomed, the milkers (Hollanders) immaculately clad. The milk, drawn through cheesecloth and absorbent cotton into pails with small openings, was immediately run over a cooler which reduced it to forty degrees Fahrenheit, bottled and placed in iced retainers for shipment. Frequent tests subsequently made by the State Board of Health, showed a bacterial contest falling as low as 1,180 per cubic centimeter.

The Walker-Gordon Laboratory, moreover, was prepared to fill individual prescriptions for infant feeding, thus saving the expense of a central station with

equipment and special nurse for the work of modification during the initial season. Hence a contract was made by which all percentage modifications were furnished the commission at the rate of twenty-five cents for each day's feeding, and whole milk at eleven to twelve cents a quart, the retail price being fifteen. These prices included all the expense incidental to the delivery of the milk in iced tubes, packed in individual retainers, at each of the four distributing stations.

Before establishing distributing stations, it had been the intention of the commission to draft a map to show the districts of greatest infant mortality, in order that these stations might, without any doubt, reach the neediest neighborhoods. This, however, was so delayed that it was finally found practical to accept the suggestions of various experienced charity workers. Almost immediately ten places were available, rent free. As the commission felt itself limited to four stations for the first season, it considered only those districts, in four divergent points of the city, commonly known to be most lacking in friendliness and education. With one exception it chose quarters in institutions already recognized in their communities as friendly centers—a settlement, a rescue mission and an institutional church—confident that through these channels a new work could be more quickly and efficiently introduced. In no instance was the choice of locality a mistaken one. In fact all were actually verified by the map subsequently made of "death districts" for children under two years of age.

Next came the selection of nurses and physicians—both carefully chosen, not only with reference to previous training but for temperamental fitness as well. For physicians, the commission was fortunate in securing the services of specialists in infant feeding, men and women sufficiently interested in the movement to give gratuitous service twice a week in examining children not under the care of a family physician. Lacking an organization from which to draw experienced nurses, the commission could only select those graduates of reputable training schools, experienced in obstetrics and the

care of children, who seemed best fitted for "friendly visiting" in the homes. The first nurse engaged was designated as head-nurse, and given the organization of each station in turn.

The station determined upon, the equipment was very simple: a refrigerator (furnished at three of the stations), a hot plate (loaned at two), utensils for sterilizing, a few supplies, a set of statistical cards in an indexing box, and a bundle of pamphlets for distribution. Ice, bottles and nipples, as well as a large part of the supplies, were donated for all the stations. Then came, just prior to the opening day, a house-to-house canvass of the district for bottle-fed babies in need of milk and supervision. At three of the stations this was done with the help of the residents in charge and was more effective than the work of the nurses, unaided, could have been. Each station was thus opened with an encouraging number of babies, and the daily routine quickly established.

This routine was simple but thorough. Before any milk was given, the child was undressed and weighed, and a careful record of its personal and family history taken; after both preliminaries, the child was prescribed for individually, by the physician, never by the nurse. We accepted without qualification the dictum that "each individual infant must be a law unto himself. Babies cannot be fed by rule of thumb; feed individuals, not groups." Stock formulas, therefore, were never used. The prescriptions given fell into three classes: percentage modifications prepared at the Walker-Gordon Laboratory; simple modifications, prepared by the nurses at the stations and (in a few instances) carefully supervised by them in the homes; and whole milk for children from one to five years of age. So far as possible, children were weighed weekly; in serious cases, twice a week, prescriptions being changed with the varying needs of the child. Patients and prescriptions from other physicians were also accepted, but the majority of applicants, having no regular supervision, were wholly under the care of the examining physician so far as the feeding was



WHOLE MILK FOR A SICK BROTHER.

concerned. Cases requiring special medical advice were transferred, either to a physician, the Eleanor Hospital for Children, or the Free Dispensary. Although the term "clinic" has been thoughtlessly applied to the bi-weekly consultation hours, in no instances have prescriptions other than milk been given. The prescriptions once given are registered by the nurse at the laboratory, there filled out, and delivered to the station designated until further orders.

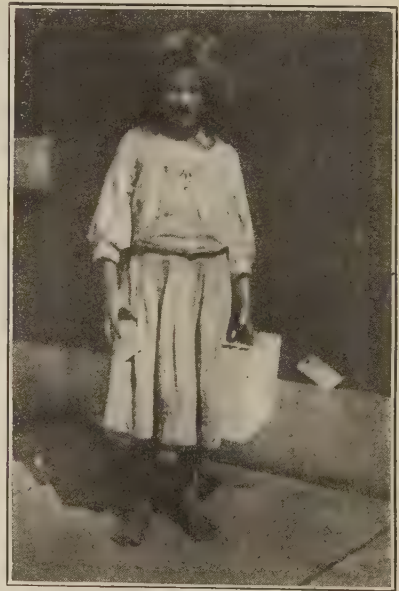
The stations were open daily from eight to twelve for the distribution of milk. No milk, except in a few special cases, was delivered to the homes. Children, parents, neighbors and even grandparents, came for milk the summer through. Modified milk for the smaller children, packed in iced retainers containing the tubes for feeding each child for twenty-four hours, before leaving the stations was carefully re-iced so that the temperature could be kept below forty degrees until warmed for immediate use. Whenever modifications were prepared by the nurse, the feeding bottles were also carefully packed in pails and covered with ice. Quart and pint bottles of milk were given out in the same way, buckets being

loaned by the station when not furnished by the patrons.

For this milk, an initial deposit fee of two cents for each bottle was required. A charge of three cents for each bottle broken was also asked. Bottles of modified milk were sold for one cent each when they contained three and four ounces; two cents when six and eight ounces; whole milk cost seven cents, the prevailing market price. In cases of extreme poverty, or temporary ill-luck, tickets were furnished and accepted as cash at the stations. As the same tickets were sold to other patrons no stigma attached to their use. Applications for free milk were made either through philanthropic organizations or in person at the distributing stations. In either case they were carefully investigated by the nurses.

Nipples, sterilized and wrapped in waxed paper, were furnished with each day's feeding. These with the bottles were returned each morning, the latter sent back to the laboratory, the former sterilized at the station.

The outdoor routine of the nurses began at half-past one or two, the afternoons, with the exception of Sundays, being spent in neighborhood visits. Sick children, of course, received the first at-



MODIFIED MILK FOR A HUNGRY BABY.

tention. In a number of instances nurses were on duty night and day; in several others, feedings were prepared at the station and taken to the home every two or three hours, as might be required. Many cases not so serious were visited daily, others once or twice a week. The daily birth-returns were also watched and homes in the vicinity of the stations visited. Mothers were urged to nurse their children if possible, but when unable to do so, the attending physician was called upon and the object of the station carefully explained. Families reported by various organizations or individuals were also visited. In the case of two children suffering from inanition, with whom the most carefully modified milk failed to agree, wet-nurses were secured at considerable expense. The commission had pledged itself to save the babies, and it made every possible effort to redeem that pledge.

The work had still another aspect, which, although involved in the distribution of milk and the supervision of the nurses already described, should be specially emphasized, *i. e.*, the education of the mothers in the care of their own children. Beginning with the belief that impure milk was the chief factor in infant mortality, it was soon evident that the ignorant mother was equally responsible, and that in any successful reduction of the death rate these dual factors must be recognized.

The records of the stations were in themselves pitiful revelations of the lack of training and opportunity of the majority of the mothers in attendance. Of 119 registered, 75 were the wives of laborers, only 44 of skilled workmen. The average weekly wage earned

when employed was between nine and ten dollars; and 41 of the 119 were, on account of industrial conditions, wholly or partially unemployed, a fact which made it almost impossible to exact payment from more than 83, or a little more than two-thirds of the total number registered. Fifteen mothers were the sole support of their children. The average number in the families was five; the rooms occupied, between four and five. All belonged to an indigenous population, 104 of the 119 being American born, and 116 white.

Before going to the stations, 24 of the mothers had been feeding their children wholly from the table—25 of the 119 were between 2 and 5 years of age, 94 under two years. Of the remaining 95, 24 had been given condensed milk, 12 proprietary foods, and 31 cow's milk—about an equal number being fed on cow's milk and milk substitutes. The others had been partially nursed, on combinations with one and another of the above substitutes. Only about a fourth of the mothers, therefore, were giving their children the proper diet; three-fourths were in need of instruction as to the proper food, and almost all lacked any idea of regularity in feeding.

The campaign for their education was carried on in three ways: individual instruction, the distribution of literature, and social incentive. Careful individual

attention was given to each mother and child by the physician at the bi-weekly conference. Not one was lost sight of in a large group. Frequent visits made to the homes by the nurses, as already described, gave opportunity for still more confidential relations and minute di-

Remember there is nothing so good for the baby as the mother's milk.

Don't feed it anything else unless told to do so by your doctor.

But if your doctor says you must stop the breast milk, get the properly prepared food from the Milk Commission station.

Don't boil the milk you get from the Commission.

But keep the bottle of milk in a cool place.

Don't open the bottle before the baby is ready to be fed.

But use a fresh bottle and a clean nipple for every feeding.

Don't feed the baby cold milk.

But put the bottle in a pail or can of warm water for about ten minutes before feeding.

Don't feed the baby too much or too often; remember there is more danger in feeding too much than too little.

But feed at regular hours, and from the bottle only; if the baby cries at other times, give it cool, boiled water.

Don't give it any milk in case of diarrhea,

But consult your physician or the nurse at the milk station.

Don't handle the baby too much.

But let it alone; don't pick it up every time it cries.

Don't put too much clothing on it.

But bathe it in a tub every day.

Don't allow the baby to stay in a close room.

But give it fresh air, asleep or awake, night or day.

Don't let it stay awake too long.

But give it at least two naps a day.

Don't let the baby sleep in the bed with any other person.

But if there is no crib, arrange chairs with soft covering over them and so the baby can't fall off.

If a baby is worth having, it's worth saving, by following the advice here given; if you need more, go to your physician if you have one, or consult the nurse at the distributing station.



A MOTHERS' MEETING.

rections. Pamphlets, compiled from the literature found successful in Rochester, Chicago and elsewhere, were distributed, bearing directions on the preceding page.

At the same time, the value of the neighborhood group as an educational and social factor, was recognized and encouraged. The clinics, made as informal and cheery as possible, developed among the mothers a wholesome feeling of companionship and rivalry in the progress of their children, which had much to do with the personal care given the babies brought for bi-weekly inspection. Monthly socials, with addresses on the care of children, helped engender a spirit of co-operative ownership and of obligation to one another and to the commission. Mothers, grateful for the help given their own children, brought new patients to the stations, pressed small voluntary donations upon the nurses, offered to publish testimonials in behalf of the work, and at the close of the summer season presented three signed petitions thanking the commission for its work and asking its continuance through the winter. So sincere were the requests, supplemented as they were by actual self-sacrificing offers of free room in homes

already overcrowded, that the commission recognized the obligations its success had entailed, and enlarged its original plans to include one station open through the winter.

From the viewpoint of the mothers, then, this modest experiment in foster-motherhood has been a success. Of the 119 babies registered at the various stations from June 19 to September 30, not one under supervision died. One child, registered, weighed and found suffering from a specific disease, was transferred the same day to a children's hospital where it eventually died. Another, brought to the station in a dying condition, died the same day before the modified milk could reach it; of the remaining 117 actually receiving the milk, not one was lost. On the other hand the gains in weight were mutually satisfactory to the mothers and the physicians with only a few exceptions. Of 99 children carefully recorded, the actual lowest gain was two ounces, the highest, twelve pounds and fifteen ounces; the average lowest gain three and three-quarters ounces; the highest average increase, seven and one-half pounds.

Not only was the rate of mortality among these babies entrusted to the care

of the commission reduced to zero, but also the general city death rate among children under five years of age was somewhat modified by it. At the end of September the city Board of Health was responsible for the statement that this was only one-half that of the preceding year. So many forces entered into this result: improvement of the general milk supply, better civic sanitation, fresh air camps and other things—that it is hardly fair for any one factor to claim all or more than its share of the credit for the decrease. Since 95 of the 119 children registered at the stations were under two years, and intestinal diseases the chief foe we were fighting, the commission can rightly claim only a share in the decreased mortality of children under two, and for intestinal disease only. For the last five years (1903-1907) the average mortality under the age and for the trouble specified, has been 62, 83, 80 and 71 per cent of the deaths from all causes during the months of June, July, August and September. During the summer of 1908 this rate was 29, 66, 53 and 49 per cent for the same months, ages and causes—a drop in all except July, to or below the average yearly rate (53 per cent) of deaths for children under two.

From still a third viewpoint we wish to believe this experiment worth while—that of organization. The experiment, insignificant as it is in numbers, has carefully corroborated the conclusion of other cities, that it is possible to secure a decrease in the rate of infant mortality from intestinal diseases at comparatively small expense to the community. It has, however, taught us to specify further that the greatest decrease is to be obtained under the following conditions:

1. That the milk supply be of certified purity (10,000 per cubic centimeter) and unpasteurized.

2. That each child be given individual rather than group modifications, prescribed by specialists in infant feeding.

3. That each case be constantly supervised in the home by trained nurses, working under the direction of the prescribing physician.

4. That distributing stations be placed as near as possible to the districts of greatest infant mortality, and in recognized social centers.

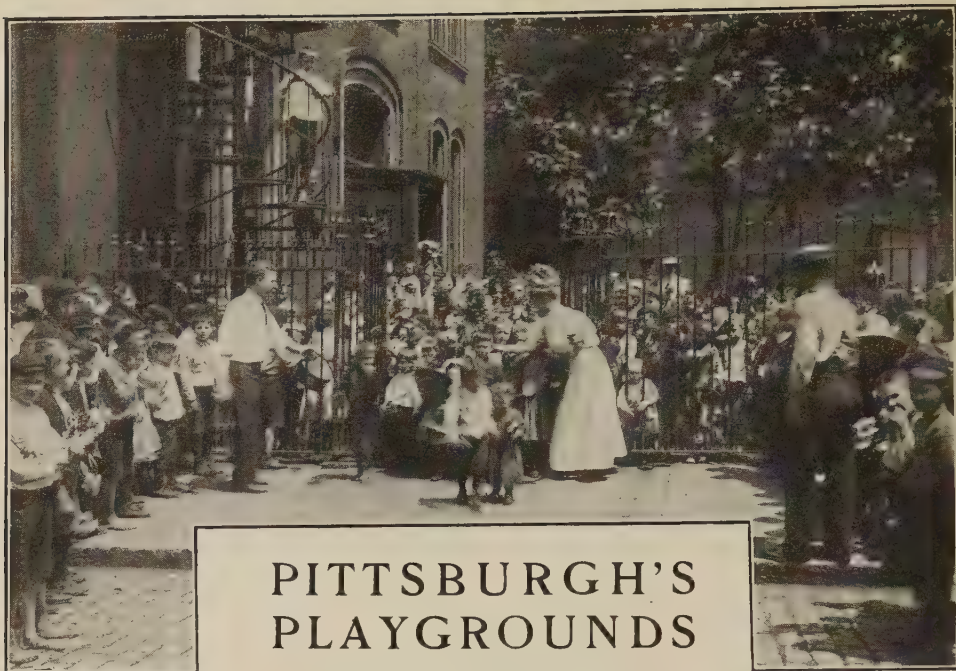
5. That the educational aspect of the work be developed and the small social group encouraged.

This last point cannot be over-emphasized. Physicians and nurses may give instructions in the care of milk and of the child, but it is, after all, the social intercourse which is most likely to supply the incentive for carrying out the instructions. It would, indeed, be ideal if cities might, as Mr. Spargo suggests, own their own dairy farms and produce for all the citizens a pure milk supply, but such an ideal state will be long in coming—perhaps rightly so under many of our municipal conditions. Milk production will, therefore, be left to individual initiative, and infant milk depots to private philanthropy—ventures hardly self-supporting under the conditions outlined above, if the neediest children are to be reached. Pure milk distribution becomes, consequently, a form of either public or private relief, and should be dispensed



"ONE OF THE LEAST."

with as much care as any other form of relief, looking ever to permanency and self-helpfulness. Pure milk sold below the standard price of the community, dispensed without investigation and without adequate instruction and supervision, may become ultimately harmful to the recipients. If it is to be raised above this danger level, it can be only through emphasis on the social and educational features which I believe are essential to successful campaigns for the decrease of infant mortality.



PITTSBURGH'S PLAYGROUNDS

BEULAH KENNARD

PRESIDENT PITTSBURGH PLAYGROUND ASSOCIATION

The Play Congress to be held in Pittsburgh this month [May 10-14] will find a city alive to the importance of playgrounds, of play in the public schools and of the spirit of play for children of all degrees. The Pittsburgh playgrounds have been doing a quiet but effective work for thirteen years with ever growing popular appreciation, until now there is an enthusiasm over the approaching congress which promises to become epidemic. Not only is the city ready to listen eagerly to the experts who will discuss the scope and the technique of play but it is preparing a program of festivals in honor of its guests. On Monday night a reception will be held in the beautiful art galleries of Carnegie Institute. On Tuesday afternoon the kindergarten teachers of the city will give their annual game festival. On Wednesday afternoon the winter recreation centers will be "at home" to visitors. On Thursday afternoon the steel mills will be open to them. Thursday evening the children of the centers will give a festival of folk songs and folk dances in Carnegie Music Hall and Friday afternoon the public schools,

the athletic associations, the settlements, the Chamber of Commerce and Boards of Trade will unite in a great play festival in Schenley Park, the first Pittsburgh festival of play, though the Playground Association has already held two.

It is hard for us at this time to remember that but a few years ago Pittsburgh had forgotten how to play. She had been a typical American industrial city in her single-hearted devotion to business and her apparent indifference to any pleasures other than the satisfaction of success. Her almost unlimited natural resources which might have given the people a prosperous sense of leisure, her three noble rivers, her coal and iron and oil, were only serving to make the "workshop of the world" a greater workshop—not to make it either beautiful or livable. From the hill-tops one might see the outlines of the superb setting of this gate of the west, but at closer range the beauty was lost in narrow streets, incongruous, haphazard building and smoke. Characteristically also the city which had forgotten the meaning and the uses of leisure had for-

gotten the use and value of recreation. Perhaps the Scotch-Irish settlers of an earlier day "took their pleasures sadly" like our English cousins, but it is rather surprising that the large numbers of play-loving Germans should have done so little to provide wholesome amusement for their families.

Both Highland and Schenley parks were out of reach of the poor and River-view Park was on the edge of things also, but through the heart of Allegheny ran a long narrow common which was more accessible. This common did not suggest nor provide for play but it was level, green and shaded, a pleasant resting place for tired eyes. Mothers and nurses with very little children were often seen on its walks and once a year the school children were entertained on the grass.

In all the mill and tenement districts of Pittsburgh, in the river wards, the "Hill District," the South Side, West End or Hazelwood there was not a foot of land for park or common except a little thirty-foot wide strip of grass on Second avenue near the court house, and

on this the adjoining property holders were looking with covetous eyes. How could we think of parks and playgrounds when all the land and even the river banks were needed for business? Everywhere the bluffs rose at a very short distance from the rivers, crowding mills and mill workers into unfortunately close companionship.

The tiny yards were often filled with hovels or sheds used as dwellings, and those remaining were filled with rubbish even as they are to-day, and the situation was made much worse by the high rents which caused many families occupying only two or three rooms to take as boarders the unmarried mill operatives, whose alternate night and day shifts compelled them to live near their work. Some thousands of beds in these small and ill-ventilated quarters were occupied day and night, creating for the children of the family conditions supposed to belong only to abject poverty. Play in a steaming kitchen or home workshop is difficult and unwelcome, but play in the bedroom of sleeping boarders is impossible.

These practically homeless children



FROM GREENFIELD AVENUE SCHOOL.
Steep hills make playgrounds difficult.

had no yards. Their only playground was the street with its narrow sidewalks and the space between the curbs filled with a constantly increasing traffic. The steep hillsides above gave so insecure a foundation to the rickety frame houses attached to them that these houses were often built into the hill, so that the rear of the lower stories was without light and air. They had not a foot of yard-space for play nor even the facilities of modern school buildings in these older wards. But the children of these districts had little desire to play. The nature of the mill population, recruited yearly from the oppressed and impoverished peasants of south-eastern Europe, had much to do with the lack of play spirit. These people seeming-

foreign birth. Their new Americanism demanded complete forgetfulness of the old country and its ways. They must adopt the play traditions of their adopted country. But what suggestion of play could they find in a city of iron whose monster machinery rested neither day nor night? Their surroundings were ugly and forlorn. In many places green things could not grow because of the pall of smoke which swept heavily down, clouding the sunlight, and leaving a deposit of grime on everything, including the children. If the imagination is fed by sense impressions these children could have little idea of life other than mere existence for the sake of work. Without playground or play traditions or imagination or vitality, we found that these



SOHO SCHOOL.

No wagons in the way.

ly are not rich in play traditions and customs or they leave behind them those which they had at home. We unconsciously assume that all children play because they are children, forgetting that play is a social inheritance. Children whether savage or civilized learn their games from one another and from imitating and symbolizing adult life. Most of the essential facts about any civilization are revealed by its games and in this light American children of to-day are seen to be poorer in imagination, ideality and invention than their forefathers; for they have lost many of the old games. But the children among the mills were usually of foreign parentage if not of

children literally did not know how to play.

In 1896, when the Civic Club recently formed was looking for work, it determined to open a school yard playground, providing for it a few swings, toys and sand, and two kindergartners. In order to keep the teachers busy the visiting committee suggested that a little program be arranged dividing the time between stories, songs, directed games and free play for the different groups of children. The first playground was in a ward settled by middle class people and this plan worked smoothly enough though the children needed more assistance in play than might have been

expected. Then the committee entered two mill neighborhoods and met the real difficulty. Never having lived next to a mill and always having had a yard and a doorstep of their own, they could not understand it. That children should not know how to play was most astonishing. The committee could not believe it. Some of them do not believe it now. They think that the children played while they were not looking. But the trained and experienced teachers soon discovered the spiritual starvation of their charges and set themselves immediately to do intensive work. The morning program began with a march around the yard led by a drummer boy in the full pride of his noise. Children came running from all directions. They sang and saluted the flag and then were divided into groups for games and free play with the sand and swings. About the middle of the session, toys were put away and all the children gathered in the kindergarten room while the teachers told stories or taught kindergarten games and songs with piano accompaniment. The trained teachers were usually assisted by volunteers from the committee who were not content to observe and criticise, but spent many mornings guarding swings, taking care of babies to relieve the little sister mothers, telling stories and bringing flowers each week for distribution. After the second year, the Children's Department of the Carnegie Library sent trained story tellers to the playgrounds and also distributed books to the children, co-operating most effectively with the committee.

North of Penn avenue a playground was opened among colored children whose homes were indescribable and whose parents did not seem to care where their children were. An exception, however, was the mother of one small vagrant,—who came to the playground and carried him home in high indignation. He had been required to obey some simple rule and she told the teachers that if her boy could not do as he pleased at school, she would keep him at home where he could. After four years spent among the white children near here the kindergartner said, "They cannot plan

games for themselves; but they now will continue to play after we have left them and you do not know how much that means in this place." Children on some playgrounds did not know why they were there.

One of the pathological conditions observed among Pittsburgh children is their feverish, unchildlike desire for work,—real work, not play. This was most intense in the "Hill District" where it was encouraged by the parents. Girls would not come to the playground unless bribed with sewing classes and parents continually asked that children only six or seven be given sewing. They said, "It is no good to come to play." This is a region of tobacco factories and sweatshops in which before the passage of the child labor law children were put into the industrial treadmill very early.

The boys were not so abnormally industrious as the girls. Some were rather too docile and quiet, but quite as often they had acquired the roving spirit of the tramp. The gang was found everywhere among the street-bred children, but it had developed in its most dangerous form in Soho where, with the Irishman's genius for organization, the older boys had formed a band of robbers that terrorized the neighborhood, while tiny fellows just out of the kindergarten were learning the rules of the game. After taking the names of more than a dozen of these one morning, we accidentally learned that every name was an alias!

More than half of the Pittsburgh playgrounds have been in those sections where the children were sub-normal and apparently tending to degeneracy because of their unfortunate surroundings, children whose love of beauty was rudimentary, whose imagination was so dwarfed that they never could think of anything to make or anything to play and whose knowledge of nature was so limited that only six out of forty knew the robin, while one child asked if a great owl were a humming bird.

In the middle class neighborhoods on both sides of the rivers the children were bright, active, and resourceful. It was a joy to be with them for they knew "what to do next" and they were a great relief to our minds for we did not want



PLAY IS STRENUOUS.

to consider the others the Pittsburgh type.

After five years' experience the committee felt that the children on the playgrounds must be better classified and that more attention should be given to the older boys and girls. Much had been accomplished for individual children. Little sister-mothers had gone home with more childlike expressions on their faces. Real mothers and fathers had come with grateful words to the gates and many parents understood their own children better after seeing them happy and obedient in a child world. But the small yards with their limited apparatus were adapted only for the use of young children and even these could not receive enough personal attention from the overtaxed kindergartners. The older girls would not or could not come unless given some definite training. Those who wandered in soon became restless, begging for sewing or some other form of occupation while the boys made such a nuisance of themselves that they forfeited their privileges early in the season and only remained to menace the "kindergarten" from outside. The committee, therefore, instead of increas-

ing the number of playgrounds decided to extend the usefulness of those already opened. In order that the older children might learn to play, suitable playfellows for them must be found and their desire for work must be met. After experimenting for two years with vacation school methods, the committee decided to combine the vacation school with the playground. The program for the younger children was unchanged. For those over eight years of age it was revised to include some form of industrial work, music, nature study and clay-modelling, or drawing in colors. Part of the morning was always devoted to games. When twelve playground schools had been planned, the committee found itself quite unable to pay the salaries of enough teachers to take care of them. With a courage born of necessity the committee members then assumed the responsibilities of volunteer principals. The twelve small schools were opened with only two or three trained teachers at each center and the street boys came in like a flood. The general chairman's memories of that summer are very vivid,—in one school a howling mob of colored boys surrounding the altogether

helpless little teacher, who had offered to give them a nature lesson,—in another a stampede of Polish, Italian and Irish boys from the drawing-room where the necessities of a limited schedule had sent them. Everywhere was an overpowering sense of the street. But every woman stood by her post to the end. By means of careful supervision, weekly teachers' conferences and sheer determination, the summer was brought to a successful close.

The development of these "schools of play" has been the work of the last five years. The endeavor has been to base each department on a normal play instinct and to keep them spontaneous, childlike and joyous, without strain and without self-consciousness. In the "carpenter shops" boys are given play models and allowed to use the saw and plane like men. In the art classes, Indian or war stories are illustrated on large sheets of paper while the girls paint flowers and birds and stencil dainty patterns which they have themselves designed. They use live models whenever possible and parrots, puppies, cats, geese and chickens are carried from school to school to the

great delight of the children. Dancing and rhythmic gymnastic exercises receive much attention as the children do not know how to use either hands or feet well. They can neither stand nor walk nor throw a ball straight. Classes in cooking and nursing have been fitted in wherever space can be found, the boys being as anxious to cook as the girls. But to the over-industrious teachers and children one inflexible rule has been given—"The play period must not be encroached upon." Every teacher has her game book and must learn to play if she has forgotten how.

As the number of trained teachers has been increased the volunteer committee has gradually resumed the social duties of earlier days.

One charming custom of our playgrounds is the weekly flower day during the summer, to which flower lovers for twenty miles around the city contribute. Great baskets of flowers are sent from city and suburban gardens and scores of women spend Thursday evening and Friday morning in tying thousands of bouquets. The love of flowers seems to be an absorbing passion from



GARDEN PLAYGROUNDS.

"Where oats, peas, beans and barley grow."

the tiniest babies to the roughest boys and for days after the distribution the windows of the tenements are brightened by them.

What have these play schools accomplished in the past seven years? When we go back to the mill neighborhoods we see no outward change. There is the same dirt and overcrowding. The mills have not changed in appearance and the operatives have not changed in character. The population is if anything more dense, but families have been helped as these children have been trained to make the home cleaner and the clothes less dependent on "the strained devotion of a pin." Little girls have taught their mothers how to cook wholesome, plain food and their care of the spoiled tenement baby has been more intelligent. At one school the girls were asked if their babies ever drank coffee. Everyone answered, "Yes." When the babies are put on a milk diet instead of one including coffee, doughnuts and bananas, they will lie in a basket or hammock, and the little sisters that tend them can themselves rest or play with other children.

The playgrounds are of help in solving the child labor problem. Many parents put their children to work during the summer vacation, not because they need the pittance which the child can earn, but to save them from the demoralization of the street. When these boys and girls are fourteen years old they seldom return to school. Such parents are more than willing to make use of the playground school instead of the factory or mill. Little Michel Strozzi's father had put him in the glass works for the summer, but he sent him to the vacation school more than a mile away where the child, small and delicate for his age, ran and jumped and built pyramids with other boys, handled tools, made toys and played with earnestness which expanded his lungs, straightened his back, and steadied his active little brain for another year of effective study.

And the gang has been tamed. A West End gang whose ideals had been confined to base ball and pugilism became enthusiastic carpenters. Their devotion to the fine, clean young fellow

who was their instructor was pathetic. They followed him around. In order to cure the sneak thieving he would leave all the material out on the ball field and go away without making any boy responsible for it. The next morning every bat and ball and glove would be returned.

In another school the following rules were composed and written on the board by a basketry class of small boys:

<p>You must not sass the teacher. You must not chew gum. You must not talk loud. You must not break the rules.</p>

The social results of such diversified and intimate work cannot be estimated. Manual training has been introduced into a number of schools, library groups and clubs have been started, and the settlement classes have continued the spirit of the playgrounds.

We would rather judge them however, by the great play festival at Schenley Park which closed the summer season of 1908. Three thousand children who had been regular enough in their attendance to learn games and drills and folk dances came from every part of the city, flying their school pennants from the car windows, waving the school colors and shouting the school yells. At the top of the hill they formed in procession and marched down eight abreast, singing the playground marching song as they passed in review before the mayor and city officials. First came the babies with their barrows and buckets and shovels, their toys and pin wheels; then children a little older in flower chains and horse reins; boys on stilts and girls with rag dolls of their own making; then boys and girls bringing toys, carts and all manner of other things which they had made; and last the symbolic procession of the arts and crafts of the play schools. The carpenters in cap and apron, the housewives dressed as Puritan maidens, the cooks in white and the nurses in blue with the red cross on their arm, the metal workers with



"THEY CANNOT PLAN GAMES FOR THEMSELVES."

their mimic swords, the gardeners in overalls and farmer's hats with home made rakes over their shoulders, the peasant dancers, the singers, the basket makers disguised as real Indians, the potters and the painters in blouses, the weavers and the needle workers, all carrying their banners and the tools of their craft. The teachers marched with the children, and janitors and custodians who would not be left out brought up the rear. Before the procession was ended a sudden storm drove the children into the buildings near by, drenched but happy. After the storm they trooped out again and scattered over the field for games. Drills, dances, races and other contests, and a wonderful circus for the boys followed quickly enough to be bewildering to the spectators. At any time when children were free they wandered about the park wondering at so much unused space. Then, with the assembly, the flag salute and the singing of America, the long lines of children flowed away, in perfect order, yet without stiffness or constraint after the "happiest day of their lives."

The administration of the Pittsburgh playground system illustrates the theory that the American people will let you try any method of doing things so long as you get them successfully done.

There was no general playground sentiment in the city when the little committee from a department of the Civic Club asked permission to open a few school yard playgrounds and offered to pay all expenses including the salary of the janitor. Even this modest request was refused by the first local school board and was only granted by a second after political sanction had been given. Three years later the committee received its first appropriation of \$1,500 from the

Central Board of Education. A Pittsburgh man, Burd S. Patterson, had in 1895 secured the passage of a state law by which town or borough officials and school boards were specifically authorized to use school yards as playgrounds, and to purchase or lease ground for recreation purposes, as well as to provide for the maintenance of such grounds, but Philadelphia made the first use of the law. In that city the school playgrounds are still maintained by the Board of Education. In our decentralized ward system of school control, however, the Central Board of Education had no jurisdiction over the use of the local school buildings or yards and could not

carry out any consistent plan. The Civic Club was obliged to act as the agent of the central board in expending the annual appropriation and to ask each local board for the use of the school yards under its control. The school system has not changed during the past twelve years and the selection of schools each season has always been a complicated and trying process. When the work in a certain school has been



"LONDON BRIDGE IS FALLING DOWN."

known for years to every child in the neighborhood, a long explanation may be required by some newly elected school director who has never heard of a playground.

In 1900 the Civic Club felt that more popular support was needed and the women's clubs were asked to co-operate with it in more extended plans. From the club delegates a joint committee was formed which conducted the playgrounds for the next six years. Few of the women's clubs had been doing any kind of civic work, and they became enthusiastic, making playground interests an important feature of club life, contributing liberally from their treasuries, and sending



PLAY FESTIVAL IN SCHENLEY PARK.

March of the Nations.

many volunteers. The Central Board of Education gradually increased its appropriation to \$9,500 in 1908, but a considerable sum was added to this through private contributions by which the expenses of administration were met and the Allegheny playgrounds supported until 1903. At that time Allegheny councils began to assume the latter charges.

After the school playgrounds came our city playgrounds, or "recreation parks," as they have been grandly styled. The history of these began with 1901. Pittsburgh councils had appropriated \$1,500 for "recreation grounds," but no one seemed to know where or how or by whom the money was to be expended. The city owned no such grounds, except Snyder's Square, which is still used for the storage of city pipe and for the improvement of which there is a standing blanket appropriation of \$5,000. An abandoned reservoir called Bedford Basin was a possible playground being filled by contract, but did not need an appropriation that year at least. The joint committee went to the mayor and asked for half of the money. One of the committee members had found a piece of ground adjoining the South Side High School which the owner would loan for a playground and the committee wanted it. The money was granted, the square was fenced and a back-stop and shed were built. That little square, without a tree or blade of grass, the ground filled with broken bricks and glass and cut off from the main street by a hideous bill board fence, was called the "South Side Recreation Park," the pride and joy of the whole South Side. For three years there was no other. The committee was al-

lowed to spend the remainder of the \$1,500 there, for Bedford Basin was not ready and in the meantime the Central Board of Education had bought the property as a protection to the school. The year 1904 was critical. Bedford Basin was "filled," and named Washington Park, but no one seemed inclined to make it a park except in name. A rough, uneven field of about seven acres, only protected on one side by a broken wall, and higher up the hill, a cinder heap. This was the unpromising site for a park. Councils had appropriated more money for it, but the joint committee could not put even a shed on city property without the consent of the director of public works, who was not an enthusiast on the subject of small parks. There were many conferences and residents in the neighborhood took a hand. The committee's plans were approved ten days before the summer season began. Within a few hours, workmen were on the ground and this second park was opened with a sixty foot shelter house and a fence on the girls' playground (the cinder heap); and a back-stop, lavatory and fence on the ball field below; the work being completed a week after the general opening day. To save confusion of terms it was then necessary to coin this definition: "When is a playground a park?" "Whenever it is not a school yard."

In 1903 and 1904 the joint committee had asked councils for appropriations for the recreation grounds "under its care." The payments from those appropriations were made on warrants drawn on the city treasury and the committee was obliged to assume the responsibilities of a city bureau with the title "Bureau of Recreation Grounds," acting as a branch of the

Department of Public Works co-ordinate with the Bureau of Parks. There was no ordinance creating it. It simply was because it had to be. Its annual estimate of expenses was now submitted to the mayor and sent by him to councils with the estimates of other bureaus. Its contracts were made through the controller's office, subject to the usual restrictions as to competition and advertising, after the plans had been approved by the director of the department of public works.

In the fall of 1904, the complications arising from the receipt of appropriations from two different cities and the adjustment of many diverse interests led to a division in the joint committee in order that Pittsburgh and Allegheny might work out their problems independently. In March, 1906, the Pittsburgh branch of the committee was incorporated as the Pittsburgh Playground Association and with this more stable organization as its sponsor, the playground system has developed rapidly during the past three years. In 1906-7 a handsome gymnasium was built at Lawrence Park, a six acre tract which had been bought by the city in 1900, but not improved until five years later. Two smaller buildings were erected at Washington and South Side Parks and another ball field and playground were opened on leased prop-

erty. Councilmen were beginning to see the value of playgrounds in their wards and, when the association came before the finance committee asking for \$32,000 for permanent improvements and maintenance, the amount was increased to \$36,000 on condition that three new projects should be undertaken. A few months later the association was given an opportunity to buy the material of a fireproof building in Schenley Park for a sixth of its original cost. Councils approved of this purchase and voted enough money from its own contingent fund to erect the shell of a gymnasium, one hundred and forty feet long on Washington Park. During the following summer the ground was cleared for another park on the South Side, and the old government buildings at Arsenal Park were adapted to playground purposes. Effective use was made also of the gardens on this property and six other city playgrounds of varying sizes and equipment were opened.

Over a hundred thousand dollars was appropriated for the city playgrounds in 1908. The large gymnasium and field house at Washington Park was completed, two open air swimming pools and two large wading pools are now ready for use and other notable improvements have been made. During the past year also a



THE LAST CHANCE FOR A PLAYGROUND.

Only open level space in a district near Jones' and Laughlin's Mills.

city plan has been drawn up which would provide the parkless sections with well equipped recreation centers and around these smaller playgrounds are grouped according to the density and needs of the population. This plan has not yet been submitted by Councils to the people, but we hope to have it considered during 1909.

All the work of the Playground Association is done with the co-operation of the city administration. It is in constant communication with the director of public works and the Bureau of Parks. Councilmen are consulted with reference to the needs of their wards and they have deprecated the establishment of an official bureau so long as the association is willing to assume the responsibility.

In 1907 one of the most thoroughly trained playground men in the country, George E. Johnson, was secured as superintendent of the whole system. Mr. Johnson has a scholar's appreciation of the educational side of the problem and a keen sympathy for the social needs of the city. Under his direction systematic winter work was carried on last winter at three centers. This season five centers are in use for indoor gymnasium, singing, carpentry, sewing and housekeeping classes in the afternoon and evening; and preparations are being made for play rooms for the younger children. Registrations for these classes have far exceeded the capacity of our present equipment. Through the efforts of Mr. Johnson, an arrangement has recently been made with the University of Pittsburgh by which playground and public school teachers and others preparing themselves for teaching, may take a special course in social psychology and education and in the special playground branches. They receive credits from the university and the association for their work.

The playgrounds and recreation centers of Pittsburgh have only touched the fringe of the tenement and working men's neighborhoods, but the problem is now plainly stated. Its solution is a question of time. The playground movement in America is justified by the immediate response which has come to it

from cities and villages and even country places; and the desire for freedom, the play instinct, is not least insistent in our great industrial centers. In Pittsburgh playgrounds are no longer a luxury,—they are a necessity. We must have playgrounds because of the need for relaxation from the pressure of city life and labor, because children do not find in the street and the school and the home,—especially the tenement home,—all the necessities of life and growth, and because the European comes to us as raw material needing much social training and discipline to fit him for the responsibilities of American citizenship.

The recreation center is one of the great agencies in counteracting the forces which tend to disintegrate and desocialize our modern industrial cities. Here will be emphasized the human factor which is reduced to its lowest terms in highly specialized forms of manufacture and distribution. Here all the children of a neighborhood will gather for play. The center will have a playroom for little ones too young to attend school and after school hours, in winter and on the long summer mornings, it will provide the place and materials for the play of school children. By intelligent direction of the play instinct it will make the natural connection between play and work. For the young people it will provide a place for wholesome amusement at a critical time in their lives when the home cannot and ought not to confine their growing social interests within its walls, but should keep in touch with all these interests and be related to them. This relation is natural in the democratic freedom of the recreation center, and for tired fathers and mothers, who need a place where they may meet their neighbors and widen their acquaintance, it will be something corresponding to the town room of old New England.

The school house may often be used to meet the social needs of our congested neighborhoods. School yards can be open in summer and after school hours in winter, and should be supplied with apparatus and directors of play. The building can also be open in the winter

for the same purposes. But few school buildings in the older parts of Pittsburgh are capable of extended use, and wherever the school's limitations are reached the distinctive play center must supply its deficiencies.

The recreation center has a larger field than the school and appeals to many adults who will not go to the school, but will respond quickly to the call to play. In its broadest application this may save the laborer from the downward pull of unrelieved drudgery. Through it some of the traditions of beauty which are the inheritance of our newest citizens may become our own. What vandals we have been to set Italy only to digging in our ditches and Greece to stoking furnaces! We have piled money upon money in our safety deposit vaults, but we have wasted our human



riches in a way that is even more stupid than it is cruel.

To the child of poverty, the city must restore his birthright by obliterating the slum, making healthy bodies and minds possible for all by setting the little ones of the tenement and factory in real child gardens. To the boys and girls of all classes the city must give a generous education of body and mind. The playground and the school must co-operate in guiding and developing their latent powers. The city must re-create the bond of fellowship that shall make the common human interests of the poor, the rich, the wage earners paramount to the competitive war which sets them in opposing and jealous camps. The common denominator may most often be found in the play spirit and to this we may look for the civic unity of the coming time.

THE IRREGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN FACTORY WORKERS¹

LOUISE C. ODENCRANTZ

Photographs by Lewis W. Hine

Here is the calendar of a year's work of a factory girl in New York city. May, now nineteen years old, is an exceptionally quick and accurate worker, and can boast of having earned more in one week than any other girl from the trade school where she learned straw sewing. But looking at her calendar carefully, we note that although she has been in five positions, working on different kinds of goods, she was out of work three months in twelve. Three times in the year she was without work, not because she was inefficient or wished to change, but because there was nothing for her to do. We may say, "Oh, yes,

but may not hers be one of those cases interesting but abnormal, and unrepresentative of any class?"

That may be true. To judge by the keen interest shown by the public during the past year in the question of unemployment, lamenting its extent and effects, one might think it some new phenomenon, which had suddenly made its appearance among working people. Yet in 1900, when times were prosperous and no such interest was shown, returns from New York trade unions, including chiefly skilled workers, showed that from five to thirteen per cent of the members were out of work in the busiest part of the year, and the time actually lost varied from seventeen to thirty per cent of the year. If such are the returns for skilled workers, what are the facts regarding the employment of women who, the census

¹The following paper is based on results of an investigation made in New York city by the writer as the Barnard Fellow of College Settlements Association during the winter of 1907-1908. The material was secured mainly through the Alliance Employment Bureau, the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, and the Woman's Trade Union League.

points out, are usually engaged in partially or totally unskilled work? What are the facts regarding employment of women factory workers in New York city, two-thirds of whom work on goods for which the demand is seasonal or irregular, and one-half of whom receive a weekly wage of less than \$6?¹ Does the girl who has only enough efficiency to earn \$6, lose as much time from work

to live by them. In this connection, we must also take account of the fact that this factory work, which includes one-third of all the women employed in New York city², embraces those very workers who, from poor education, meager training and poor homes, are the most helpless, and whose conditions of employment, on account of their isolation from the consumer, are least known and

JANUARY.	FEBRUARY.	MARCH.	APRIL.
Jan. 1-31. Sewing ladies' straw hats by machine. Can make up to \$20 a week at piece work.	Feb. 1-28. Still at straw sewing.	March 1-31. Working at the same place. Not much work, and can't make so much.	April 1-15. Can make only about \$6-7 a week. April 15. Left. No work. April 15-30. No work.
MAY.	JUNE.	JULY.	AUGUST.
May 1-5. No work. May 5. Found work at operating on sporting goods at \$7 a week.	June 1-25. Working on sporting goods. June 25. Laid off. Season over for this trade.	July 1-17. Looking for work. July 17. Found work at operating on children's dresses at \$6 a week.	Aug. 1-5. Working on children's dresses. Aug. 5. Had to give up. Work too hard. Aug. 5-18. Looking for work. Aug. 18. Began work at operating on shoulder braces—\$6 a week.
SEPTEMBER.	OCTOBER.	NOVEMBER.	DECEMBER.
Sept. 1-30. Working on shoulder braces.	Oct. 1-31. Working at the same place.	Nov. 1-10. Working. Nov. 10. Laid off. No work. Nov. 10-30. Looking for work.	Dec. 1-12. Out of work. Dec. 12. Sent for by straw hat firm. Dec. 23. Can make up to \$25, piece work, if I work fast.

A FACTORY GIRL'S CALENDAR.

as this highly efficient girl in our calendar who turned readily from one kind of work to another?

Study of any condition in factory work is of greater importance now than ever before, because this is the main line along which promoters of industrial education are urging that girls be trained. Various kinds of factory work should be examined to discover the advantages and disadvantages for girls who are trained for these trades and who expect

hardest to reach.

As yet, no satisfactory method has been devised for showing the actual extent of irregularity of employment. Evidence must be sought in the length of time positions are held, the change in positions, the kind of work, and especially in the loss of time from work.

For instance, there is Mollie, who "took off" ruchings from a machine for a year and a half. She earned \$3.50 a week, but left because night work made

¹U. S. Census of Manufactures, 1905; Bulletin 93, page 11.

²Twelfth U. S. Census; Volume on Occupations; p. 640.



UNION SQUARE, 7:45 MONDAY MORNING.

"Yes, I get the papers right away in the morning, but—"

her ill. She became assistant forewoman, sewing curtains for one year at \$4 a week, but left because there was no chance of advancement. She was operator on children's coats six months in one place, and six weeks in another. She was operator on skirts one month in one place and three months in another. She earned \$6 a week, but each time left because business was slack.

Another girl was "learner" in a pencil factory three years, earning \$5 a week, but business was dull and she was "laid

off." For two years she was handfolder in a publishing house. For three years she worked on electrical supplies, earning \$5 to \$8 a week. She left because "it was slack," and again had to look for "any kind of work." Lillian, a skirt hand, employed by the same dressmaker for three years, now gets \$7 a week, but is idle about two months each year.

One girl, now twenty-four years old, has the following record: Learner, perfumery (probably filling bottles) one year, \$3 to \$6 a week, left because work



"—when you come to the place there are always so many others waiting."



"I JUST HATE TO LOOK FOR WORK."

was slack; packer six months, \$4.50 a week, left because work was slack; operator on a switchboard one year and three months, \$5 a week, left "to advance," which she did by entering a tile factory to paste paper on tiles, at \$8 a week. At the end of a year dull business sent her out to look for work again. During a working period of six years, she worked scarcely more than four.

Rose, trained in millinery in a trade school, began her career at \$4 a week in a position which lasted six weeks, when the season ended. She found another position in millinery which lasted two weeks. She was idle a month. When

the season began again in January, she found another place at \$5 a week, but two weeks later, was sent for by her previous employer, with whom she stayed until May, when again the season was over. In August she returned to work, but in November secured office work to fill in slack time.

These records, chosen because they are typical, are unlike the extreme cases which show a girl packing candy in one place sixteen years at \$6 a week; or another labeling headache powders seven years, advancing from \$5 to \$7 a week; or in contrast, a girl holding eight positions in two years, another eleven posi-

tions in three different kinds of work, or another losing five months in the year on account of slack season. Such records at once suggest certain questions: Do factory workers change frequently from one position to another? If so, why? Do girls lose much time in one position or in changing from one position to another? If their work is irregular, what effect has this on their earnings, their economic independence and their position as wage earners?¹

¹For conclusive answers to such questions, a vast amount of data would be necessary, secured through careful investigation of trade conditions, the careers of working girls and their living conditions. This report purposes merely to show how several hundred girls have fared in regard to the regularity of their employment. The records of about one thousand girls were considered. They include both those who had special training for the work they entered, and those who had none. The girls come from both poor homes and those of a better sort. Some were interviewed at an employment bureau which seeks work for factory girls. Others were met in unions and in clubs, or were visited in their own homes. The variety in the sources of information seems to indicate that probably no one influence renders them other than fairly typical of factory girls in general.

CHANGING POSITIONS

The histories of these girls show frequent change in positions. The majority were between sixteen and twenty-one years of age, and in this respect were fairly representative of factory workers. Many had been working three or four years, and some for a longer period.

HOW LONG DO JOBS LAST?

Of 1,103 positions recorded, about one-half had been held less than six months. Those held less than a week were not considered. 68 per cent had lasted less than one year, while the remaining 32 per cent had lasted a year or more.

HOW MANY JOBS HAS EACH GIRL HELD?

Of 238 girls with special training, two-thirds had held at least three positions, and one-half four or more positions. None had worked more than five years,

1103 POSITIONS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE TIME THEY WERE HELD.

	Less than 3 months.	3 to 6 months.	6 to 12 months.	1 to 2 years.	2 to 3 years.	3 or more years.	Total.
Number of Positions	382	172	189	171	76	113	1,103
Percentage.....	35	16	17	15	7	10	100



STILL LOOKING AT 9 O'CLOCK.

"And then it is too late to go to any other place."

and the majority less than three years. Yet of one-half the number none had been fortunate enough to get a position which lasted so long as a year.

The following table indicates only a minimum number of positions. Doubtless many positions held for short periods were not reported:

the fact that of 543 girls, 279, or one-half, had received less than \$6 a week in their last positions, and only four per cent had reached \$10 or above, as the table at the bottom of the page shows, it is curious to note how small a proportion left positions on "account of small pay" or "to advance."

238 GIRLS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF POSITIONS HELD.

Number of Positions.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Total.
Number of Girls.....	35	52	51	41	32	12	9	3	2	0	1	238

What reasons do the girls give for this frequent changing? In 967 positions, about one-half were lost because of "slack season," "temporary work," and "work ended," and seven per cent were lost because the firm failed or moved. Those positions given up "to return to former work" show that the girls had been compelled to take temporary work.

CHANGE IN KIND OF WORK

It would be natural to suppose that a girl who has spent a year in one kind of work and is then forced to get another position, would continue the same kind of work in another factory. Such an assumption is not supported by the stories of the girls considered in this investiga-

REASONS FOR LEAVING POSITIONS.

	Slack season, Temporary work, Work ended.	Illness of self.	Illness of others.	Too small pay or left to advance.	"Did not like work."	Unsatisfactory.	Firm failed, moved, etc.	Left to return to former work.	Work too hard, hours irregular, etc.	Other reasons.	Total.
Number positions...	469	40	20	112	54	54	66	12	56	84	967
Percentage.....	48	4	12	12	6	6	7	1	6	8	100

Thus personal causes, which are usually brought forward so prominently in a consideration of women's work, are re-

tion. The chances are about even whether a girl enters the kind of work in which she has had experience, or engages in an

WAGES OF 543 GIRLS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT RECEIVED IN LAST POSITION.

	Wages Received in Last Position.								Total.
	Less than \$4.	\$4 to \$5.	\$5 to \$6.	\$6 to \$7.	\$7 to \$8.	\$8 to \$9.	\$9 to \$10.	\$10 or above.	
Number....	28	101	150	111	60	44	28	21	543
Percentage.....	5	19	27	21	11	8	5	4	100

sponsible for only a small number of these cases. An employer sends a girl away because he needs her no longer; the girl does not voluntarily "throw up her job." Only about ten per cent of the positions were given up because the workers did not like them, because the conditions of work were bad—poor light, dirty work, long hours, night work, etc. Considering

occupation unrelated to it. As the table on the following page shows, in a group of some 500 girls only about one-half had remained continuously at one kind of work, and of these about one-half had worked only long enough to hold one position. In the group of girls who have been in two positions, one-half have been in two kinds of work; and among those

NUMBER OF POSITIONS AND KINDS OF WORK.

Number positions.	Number holding.	Number of kinds of work.				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	128	128
2	128	56	72
3	136	33	51	52
4	87	24	28	16	19	..
5	36	16	11	1	4	4
6	14	7	2	1	3	1
7	8	5	1	0	1	1
8	2	0	2	0	0	0
9	3	1	1	1	0	0
10	1	1	0	0	0	0
Total.....	543	271	168	71	27	6
Percentage	100	50	31	13	5	1

who have had three positions, less than a third have been engaged in one kind of work only. A girl who looks for work takes what she can get, irrespective of her previous experience. For instance, one girl dipped candy for a year, and then was a mangling girl in a laundry for six months. Another was cash girl one year, apprentice to a dressmaker one year and a half, clerical worker eight months, examiner of sample cards one year and a half, and then stock girl. Although she had spent about a year in each of four different kinds of work, she turned to a fifth when laid off. Again and again, girls who have been working many years are still seeking "any possible" work. One girl remarked: "Yes, I have been a presser for four years, but I would take any kind of work I could get."

This shifting from one kind of work to another is not confined to those who have had no special training. It is an astonishing fact that a fourth of 420 graduates from a trade school abandoned the trade for which they were trained to enter some other occupation. These girls had been taught handsewing, dressmaking, millinery, machine operating, or novelty work in courses varying from six months to two years. Yet the leading occupations to which they turned were clerical work or telephone operating; or they became stock girls, packers, salesgirls, maids, or workers in cigar, perfume or tin factories. One common feature of the work they entered was that it appeared to offer steadier employment. To illustrate: Elizabeth and her sister Emily made children's dresses for several years. In busy times they could earn from \$6 to \$9 a week, but when the slack season

came they made only \$3 or \$4 and wasted much time waiting for work. They were usually laid off after Christmas for about three weeks and for several months in the summer. Since the mother was a widow and it was necessary for the girls to keep up the home, both finally turned to telephone operating, where each has steady work at \$7 a week. Elizabeth said: "Dressmaking is a nice trade, and may be all right for other girls, but I have to support myself and make more than pin money. I can't afford to stay home three or four months every year."

Not all this shifting among trade school girls, however, can be attributed to the seasonal character of the work for which they were trained, although that probably accounts for the fact that one-fifth of the dressmakers and one-half of the milliners have gone into other work. The effect of the work on girls' health often becomes a determining factor in their change of occupation. For example, the machine operating just mentioned is the best paid work taught in the trade school and girls from this department have suffered least from slack seasons. But it requires close and strained watching of the needle, it is extremely noisy, and in some of it the foot pedal is still used. It is very confining, and a girl is often forced to sit in the same position throughout the day. Because wages are rated by the piece, there is a tendency to work at high speed when work is plenty. One girl, for instance, has been under the doctor's care ever since she left machine operating. Another, though well-paid at operating on leggings, was forced to leave on account of ill-health and she turned to work in a cigar factory. The noise and strain gave another girl nervous trouble and caused her to leave. Among 111 girls who had learned this trade one-third had, at the last report, gone into box making, dressmaking, office work, cigar making, flower making, etc., which probably offer less chance of advancement.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Such irregularity—shifting from one position and kind of work to others—



NOT ENOUGH JOBS TO GO AROUND.

necessarily involves loss of time and wages. This is one of the most difficult points upon which to secure accurate information. It is not often possible to secure the complete record of a girl's work during so long a period as a year, or to estimate time lost through part-time work. The girls themselves have no idea of what the loss is. Under the system of payment for piece work, the girls report daily, although there may be work for only a few hours. In some shops the girls are allowed to go home when there is no more work; in others they are required to wait for orders that may come in. Obviously, little or no account can be taken of time or earnings lost in this way. Moreover, even if the actual time is ascertained, it is hard to determine how much is due to trade conditions and how much to inactivity of the worker, or her unwillingness to look for another position.

Even without data, however, it is safe to suppose that the majority of girls do not find work at once, anxious as they may be to get it. An employer does not always know just how long he may need

girls and, in any case, he does not usually give them notice long before he expects to lay them off. The girls, knowing little about the amount of work to be done, cannot begin to look for other places until they know the day when they will need it, especially since in factory work it is the custom for new hands to begin work on the day when they are engaged or on the following day. The difficulty of finding work is further increased by the fact that dull business, which is the leading cause of dismissal, is apt to affect other factories in the same line of work.

A few typical examples will best show the situation: A worker, now twenty-eight years old and getting \$6 a week at labeling drugs, had a vacation with pay for one week in the year, but she was laid off two weeks without pay. Mary, who is a handsewer, held her first position nine months, when the slack season made her idle. Sadie, a milliner, lost practically no time, because she is a salesgirl in the "slack season" in her own trade. Julia, however, another milliner, lost

about five months in the year on account of "slack season."

From various sources it was possible to secure about 200 records, giving at least a minimum of time when the girls had been unemployed during a period of twelve months, and also the principal causes for their unemployment. Their weekly wages ranged from \$4 to \$25, but one-half received less than \$7, and only about one-fourth earned as much as \$8. A large variety of occupations and grades of workers were represented—millinery, dressmaking, finishing, machine operating on neckwear, shirt waists, and straw hats, candy making and packing, cigar making and packing, labeling, pasting, bookbinding, flower making, paper box making, and others. Those designated as novelty workers include pasters of belts, samples, fancy boxes, jewelry cases, etc. "Other work" includes cigar makers and packers, candy makers and packers, box makers, etc.

The following table shows the total time lost during a period of twelve months due to slack season, illness, compulsory vacation without pay, strikes, lack of work, and failure or removal of firms. It shows only a minimum amount of unemployment since it is impossible to ascertain how much time has been lost through shorter periods of "slack business" and through other conditions which caused the loss of only a few working days. Probably most periods of more than two or three weeks have been included:

According to these results, three out of every five girls lost at least a month's work, and two out of every five lost at

least two months. Such loss means that the average weekly wage throughout the year for these wage earners becomes from one-twelfth to one-fourth less than the nominal wage. Yet the majority received a nominal wage of less than \$7 a week.

CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

There is only a slight difference between the amount of time lost through all causes, and through "slack season" alone. For example, forty per cent lost over two months for all reasons, while thirty-five per cent were out of work as long on account of slack season alone, all other causes accounting for only five per cent. Machine operators and novelty workers lost least time, perhaps because of the variety of goods at which they can find work at different times of the year. On the other hand one-fourth of the milliners and dressmakers were out of work three months or more in the year on account of trade conditions.

That less time was actually lost from work by the milliners than by the dressmakers is probably due to the fact that, although the seasons in millinery are shorter, it is more common for milliners to find other work during slack times. Of the 198 girls investigated, at least forty had been obliged to resort to other work than their regular trade to avoid losing more time, and of these twenty-three were milliners. They had done clerical and office work, labeling, work in stores as salesgirls—the favorite recourse—or as stock girls, and other simple work, for periods varying from a few weeks to several months.

TOTAL TIME LOST FROM ALL CAUSES DURING A PERIOD OF TWELVE MONTHS.

Time lost.			Those having as principal trade—				
	Total Number.	Per cent.	Dress- making.	Millin- ery.	Machine operating.	Novelty work.	Other work.
None.....	41	21	4	5	10	10	12
Less than 1 month.....	32	16	4	5	8	7	8
1 to 2 months.....	46	23	16	7	8	7	8
2 to 3 months.....	33	17	16	9	4	0	4
3 to 4 months.....	15	7	12	1	0	2	0
4 to 6 months.....	23	12	8	8	6	1	0
Over.....	8	4	0	4	0	3	1
Total.....	198	100	60	39	36	30	33.

ONE GIRL'S TRADE HISTORY.



Made pads for coats; wages \$4.50; laid off for slack season; out of work several months.

Machine work on novelties; wages \$3.50, advanced to \$4; slack, laid off; photographer found work room closed until fall.



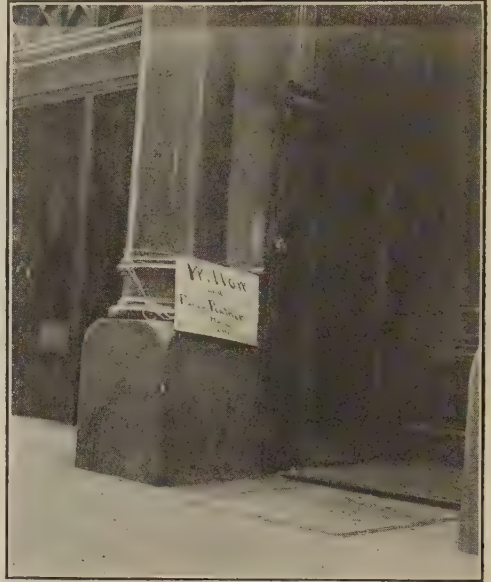
Put buttons on coats; wages \$4; left because secured better place.

Packing candy; wages \$5; taken on for Christmas rush only.



The girls shown in the pictures are not the one whose history is represented, but they are at work in the same shops, on the kind of work she did. This girl, now eighteen, was brought up in an orphan asylum. She pays \$3 a week for board and room in a tenement. Has a brother and sister "out West somewhere".

While such temporary work may tide a girl over some part of a long slack season, it has disadvantages. Apart from the probability—which is almost a certainty—that considerable time is lost in changing from one kind of work to another, the efficiency of the worker at her principal trade may deteriorate, the more so because skill chiefly means speed, and speed is quickly lost. The subsidiary work is usually of a low grade, often quite different from the principal trade. Work must be sought in those industries which have a rush season corresponding in time to the slack season in the girls' own trades, but in the majority of trades the dull season comes in summer. For instance, Emma, a milliner, during one year lost practically no time because for five months she was an operator on handkerchiefs, or wrapper and labeler on drugs. Mary, also a milliner, who began as an apprentice six years ago, says that during slack seasons she has tried almost every kind of work from making parts of a telephone to being waitress in summer hotels. It is doubtful whether many can find trades which "dovetail" so that there is little or no loss of earnings and occasion for worry. The attitude of



"WANTED."
Fancy feather hands.

workers toward the question is shown by the tendency to make a secondary trade the principal one if it chance to be more steady, even though it require less skill and wages be lower.

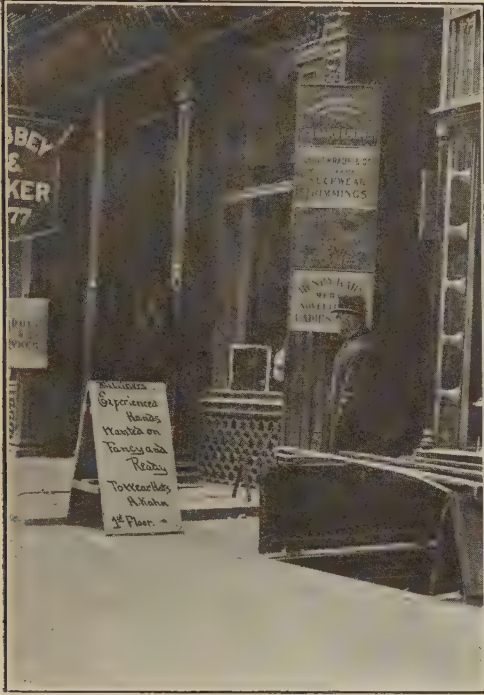
It is worth noting that many industries employing large numbers of women deal with products involving a seasonal demand; for example, in the candy trade the irregular demands of consumers at Christmas and Easter. There is too, a periodic demand for certain publications, such as catalogs and monthly magazines. This factor enters into the manufacture of almost every kind of clothing. The question naturally arises: How far is a seasonal demand responsible for irregular employment? For illustration take two trades, dressmaking and the making of women's straw hats, which differ in almost every industrial condition except irregularity of employment.

IRREGULARITY AMONG DRESSMAKERS

The sewing trades, which include dressmakers, seamstresses, milliners, and a majority of women in the "clothing trades," employ the largest number of factory women in New York city. Of



"WANTED."
Copyists on hats.



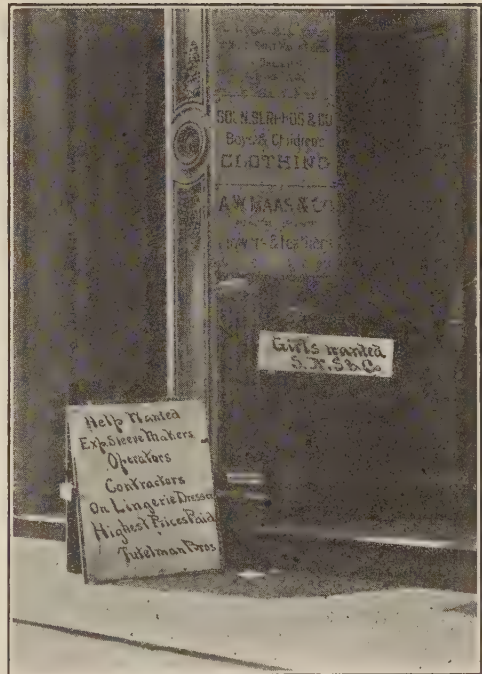
"WANTED."

Experienced hands on hats.

these branches, dressmaking is the most important because it employs about 40,000 women. The work is probably seasonal for all but a few. The length of the season varies in different shops, but on the whole the fall season is at its height in October and November, and the spring season in March and April. In one typical dressmaking establishment, where conditions are said to be very good, girls are idle one month in the summer when the establishment closes, and two or three weeks after Christmas when they are laid off in relays. During "rush" months, establishments often require girls to work overtime two or three hours several nights a week, or to take work home. In a recent investigation, girls from ten different shops reported overtime work, while in four places they said that they would be discharged if they refused. In two of these shops the girls had to work overtime five or six times a week, but they were laid off for three months in summer. Josephine has been working

in one of these places two years, getting \$9 a week, but she loses two or three months every summer. Elsie, a young, capable, energetic girl, who is working there now for the third season at \$6, was laid off from July 4 to September 10. Conditions in other shops seem to be much the same. Mildred, who attended a trade school, held her first position from February to June, getting \$5 a week. Then she was idle about three months, but in September began work in another place at \$7 a week, where she works overtime until 8 P. M. several days in the week. In slack time, finding that she could get no more work, she sewed for the family, but her mother felt that she could not afford to keep a dressmaker two or three months every year, and was anxious for Mildred to get steady work.

In the slack season, apparently few girls take up other work. It may be because the slack months are January and July when all business is dull, or because the time, though too long for a vacation without pay, is yet too short to enable



"WANTED."

Sleeve-makers.

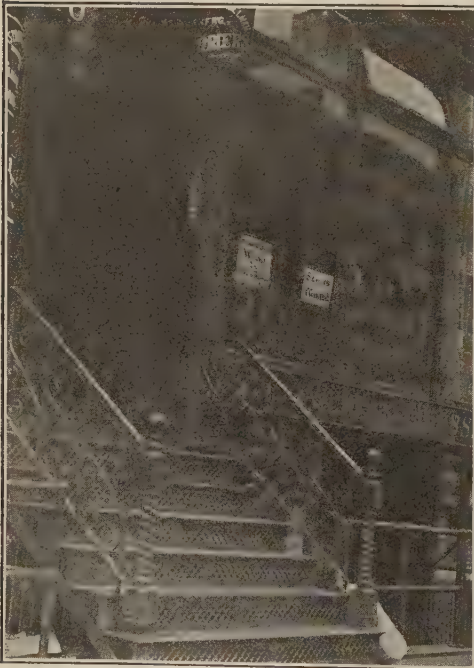
them to find other work. The nature of their trade, permitting them to use it at home in sewing for the family or neighbors, may also account somewhat for their not resorting to subsidiary trades. Even this is not always possible, since in summer there is little demand for home dressmakers, and the reduced income of the family forbids spending much money for clothing. Yet on nearly every dressmaker's record we find notes like this: "Idle two months this summer," "Lost one to two months," "Laid off July 15 to September 15," "Slack two to three months in the year." When girls who had left this trade for some other were asked the reason, they usually referred to the long slack season, and their desire and need for steady work.¹

¹An interesting comparison might here be made between dressmaking—a skilled trade—and the work of women employed at vestmaking, where they do comparatively unskilled work at basting, finishing, felling, etc. Most of them are unemployed for about a third of the year, a fact which must make a perceptible difference in their yearly earnings, the more so, as their weekly wages range from \$5 to \$8.



"WANTED."

Sewers, feather curlers.



"WANTED."

Sewers and small girls.

STRAW SEWING

Straw sewing, or the making of women's hats by machines, is but one of many kinds of machine operating. As the demand for straw hats lasts only a few months such work is obviously seasonal. Although a very few straw sewers are taken in November to make samples, the busy season does not begin until about the middle of December and lasts until about the end of April. In one shop where the busiest season lasts from December to the end of March, all the twenty-five straw operators are laid off during the six or seven slack months. This employer states that he has difficulty in finding workers on account of the very short season although wages are good. In another shop all the fifty or sixty operators on hats are laid off when the season ends in April. The good operators are recalled at the beginning of the next season. According to the statements of several girls and employers overtime work does not seem to be prevalent, since employers think it does not pay—

piece work drives the girls at high speed, and any lengthening of hours renders them unfit for rapid work the next day.

One large factory, typical of others, employs about fifty women in the busiest season, but in the slack season only a few are kept as sample hands or are put at felt sewing or hat binding. During the season of from five to six months, good and rapid workers can make from \$15 to \$30 a week in the busiest times. Some of the women work at a high, exhausting speed during the busy time and stay at home during the remaining months, living on what they have saved. Many married women are employed—women who worked at the trade before marriage and who were induced by high wages and short seasons to continue. Others, who cannot afford to be idle six or seven months, work in stores, or as operators on upholstery, underwear, handkerchiefs, etc. But high wages bring girls back to straw sewing as soon as the season begins. In fact, very few leave the trade for others, and many old hands are found with this firm. Sophie, before she turned to it, was a milliner and sometimes could make as much as \$10, but she was idle three or four months in the year. "It seems," she said, "I was always out of work when I was in millinery." By chance hearing of the good wages possible in this trade, she entered it and can make as much as \$25 a week in the busy season. In the summer, except for one or two months, she is kept at hat binding, making from \$6 to \$10 a week. Her sister worked three years at dressmaking, but was out of work a good part of each year. This year she turned to straw sewing and made as much as \$18 a week. Ella is at this trade for her third season. The first year she filled in the slack season at folding handkerchiefs, and the second at operating on braces. Her wages at straw sewing sometimes reached \$16 a week, yet when the season began she hesitated between keeping the steady position at \$7 a week and returning to the irregular trade. She too pointed out the difficulties of subsidiary work. In the fall when

she told her employer that she expected to leave operating on braces at the end of two weeks and return to straw sewing, he dismissed her angrily, saying that he had not engaged her for temporary work. She said that girls have to sneak into temporary positions without any intimation that for them it is only temporary.

Here are two trades, both seasonal, but offering utterly different conditions of employment. In straw sewing workers secure earnings high enough during their period of employment to compensate to some extent for the slack season. But this is not true of dressmaking; the low rate of wages paid points to an oversupply of workers. Probably many women enter the trade merely because it is "women's work," with little or no knowledge of the chances of making a living at it.

EFFECTS OF IRREGULAR EMPLOYMENT

Such irregularity of employment cannot be without evil effects. Miss Collet, who has been working many years on the subject of women's work in England believes that "the bad effects of the irregularity of employment amongst girls are incalculable, even if we quite neglect the question of wages."¹ It means loss of efficiency, loss of economic strength and lowering a woman's conception of her own worth as a wage earner. While recourse to a subsidiary trade may prevent a decrease in earnings, it will not prevent a loss of efficiency at the principal trade. Not only does enforced idleness decrease efficiency in some particular line, if she has attained any, but it renders her a poorer worker in other lines, and makes it more difficult to work when she again secures a position.² If she has any tendency to be shiftless when she begins her working career, irregular work tends to make her more shiftless as she grows older, and actually lowers

¹Booth *Life and Labor in London*; Vol. LV., Ch. LX.

²In March, 1909, an employer stated that he found that the girls had not yet recovered from the effects of being out of work so much during the preceding winter.

her in the economic scale. From personal observation, it appears that such idleness is extremely detrimental. It might be urged that girls, if out of work, can always find something to do at home. The majority of girls, however, do not enter seriously upon any work at home, no matter how much it is needed, but continue to look upon themselves mainly as "wage earners," wasting time, energy, and carfare in running about for work. Moreover, in a city like New York, a girl out of work and discontented because she has no money of her own, spends too much time on the streets, and is subject to more serious temptations than one whose time and thoughts are employed. One girl who has been engaged in various kinds of factory work, summed up some of the evils by saying: "Yes, I get the papers right away in the morning, but when you come to the place there are always so many others waiting, and then it is too late to go to any other place. Sometimes the man takes your name and says he will let you know in a couple of days. You wait, but you don't hear a word from him. Half the time he doesn't want anybody. I just hate to look for work. You always feel kind of upset like, and don't feel like doing anything at home." No wonder that a girl, not shiftless by nature and seriously wishing to succeed, will not submit to irregular work, but, if possible, will secure steady employment.

WHAT SHALL BE DONE?

Irregularity of employment among women is so large and dependent upon so many different factors that it is impossible to find one remedy to decrease it to a minimum, compensating the worker adequately if the trade must be irregular. It is manifest that something should be done so that a large number of women may not always be found waiting on account of trade conditions until they are wanted, with no compensation for worry and loss of time.

One obvious means would be to decrease the over-supply in certain lines of skilled and unskilled work by increasing efficiency even though the work period be short, and training girls for better and more lucrative work; and to give women as a whole a better understanding of the worth of their labor and the means of securing a just return for it.

A larger proportion of women enter industry every year. Because of later marriage and a smaller field of usefulness in the home, they tend to remain at work during a longer period. The trade school which makes for general and specialized efficiency, the employment bureau which directs girls into the best kinds of work and the best positions, the trade union which influences hours, overtime, wages, and regularity of employment and gives to women a better grasp of their own capacity, and state regulation of conditions of employment—these can each contribute a part.

A BUILDER OF DEMOCRACY

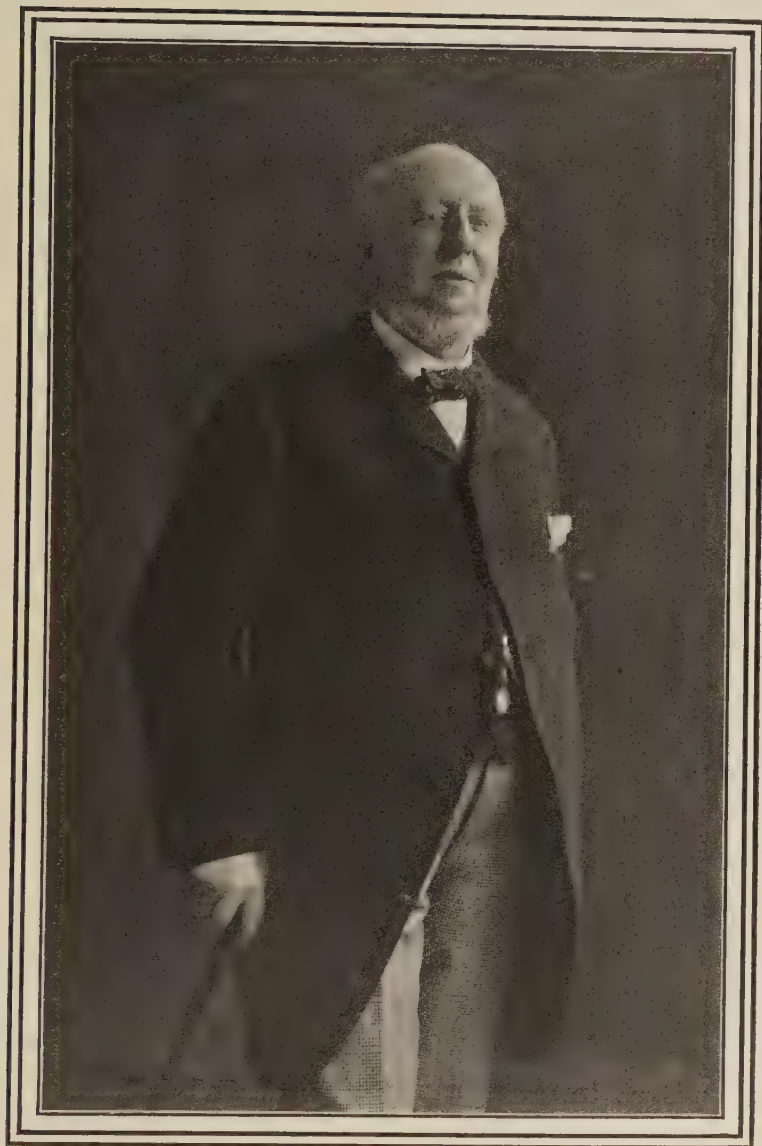
CHARLES H. COOLEY

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

Here in Ann Arbor, the quaintly-named home of the University of Michigan, a man old in years but fresh and cheerful in spirit as a child has just laid down one of the most notable tasks that ever a man took up. To organize the intellectual progress of a pioneer state, and by his success to extend that organization all over the rising West, was the work of President Angell and of the men whom

he knew how to call to his assistance. That the University of Michigan was the first in development of those vast state institutions, devoted to ideals of learning and leadership and yet upheld by the votes of the common people, is scarcely better known than the fact that Mr. Angell has had the guidance of that development for nearly forty years.

If one had to say just what qualities



JAMES B. ANGELL.

made possible his success, one could perhaps find no two words more appropriate than faith and adaptability.

He has, in the first place, a notable faith in human nature, in the better instincts of the young and the good sense of the plain people, which made him patient and optimistic in the midst of manifold trials from the vagaries of the populace both inside and outside of his institution. "Never lose faith in the boys and girls," I have heard him say to an assembly of teachers, and no sentiment is more spontaneous than this in his own mind. Indeed a kindly, almost childlike, interest in people, simply as people, was and is one of the most endearing traits about President Angell. So long as it was humanly possible to do so he knew every student by name, often keeping track of them in their later careers, and his inquiries about them and about their sisters and cousins had no touch of professionalism but were the natural expression of a peculiarly sociable spirit. And as a teacher he is of that school, old but never antiquated, which holds that vital power is first of all personal, and is transmitted only by sympathetic contact of man with man. In this the pupil may give as well as receive, and he thinks it the high privilege of a teacher that he may keep the youth of his spirit by sympathy with the young.

He has also faith in truth and honest dealing which he has expressed by lifelong loyalty to them. Shallow writers and talkers, astonished at his influence over all sorts of men, including legislators, have sometimes described President Angell as a man of profound and almost Italian subtlety and management. In fact there is nothing of the sort in him; if there were his influence would be far less than it is. His nature is essentially simple and downright, disliking indirect methods and always trusting rather to principles than to manipulation. The sole foundation for the notion in question is a manner which can be blandly impenetrable when he chooses, and his frequent practice—much like that of Lincoln—of avoiding what he regards as premature or unnecessary issues. No one understands better the value, at times,

of masterly inactivity, or has more patience to practice it. Some people decry a man who will not declare himself on one side or the other of any and every question which they themselves are agitated about; but the more judicious know that this capacity of reserve is a trait of strong character, and one most useful to the president of a university supported by public opinion. In no other sense is Mr. Angell the accomplished politician he is sometimes represented to be. He is not a schemer and never, one may be sure, made any close study of the party politics of the state, but trusted to patience, courtesy and the righteousness of his cause.

Indeed, along with an urbanity which is never insincere or profuse, there is a kind of Puritan rigor about him (brought, perhaps, from the New England town where his ancestors had lived since they came over with Roger Williams) which never compromised any essential principle, but brought all questions to a moral test. He is a man whom one always felt to have standards which he was prepared to maintain, if necessary, against the world. While he has the greatest respect for custom and opinion and likes to conform when he can, there are certain things that latterly have become not uncommon among men of his calling which he will not do, especially things that might be described in general as pretence. In writing or speaking one who has known him throughout his term of service never heard him tell anything but the exact truth (if he told anything), without exaggeration or dissimulation. He never made any claim for the university, before the public or the Legislature, which the soberest study of the facts would not have verified word for word. To speak as a partisan, claiming as much as you think you can get believed, was impossible to his conscience.

To one who knows him it seems hardly necessary to say that merely personal reputation or aggrandizement had no visible part in his thoughts. No doubt, as a young man, he had ambition, but it was more than satisfied by the conspicuous work to which he was called, and in later life the impression he left was one

of personal humility. Living on a salary (very moderate in amount, especially during the earlier part of his term) he gave his mind and all the resources of himself and his household wholly and gladly to public service.

He has, moreover, a very practical faith in God, a present and living conviction that He works in the world and that man exists for His service. This belief, which in him includes an intimate consciousness of the personal leader and model of Christians, he carried about with him as an unflinching support in a career in which, from first to last, annoyances, great and small, were an unflinching element. Few remember in these later days that at one time (and that a long time) a large and bitter faction in the state, including a great part of the active politicians, were hostile to him and assailed him with obloquy: but so it was; and the dignity and equanimity with which he remained faithful to his trust rested upon a feeling that God had put it in his hands and it was not for him to lay it down. We too easily forget, in the applause that follows great achievement, that it is seldom attained save by those who know how to endure vituperation.

The adaptability I have mentioned was shown in the address—based upon sympathy—with which he conformed himself to the conditions of his work. Coming out of the East, a man of the utmost refinement after the best New England tradition, a chip of the same block as Emerson, Lowell and Longfellow (indeed some of that group were his personal friends) he had to deal with students drawn mostly from the frontier, and with legislators and trustees who were rarely scholars and not always gentlemen. These he met and conquered not by cultivating the lower arts of the politician, or in any way derogating from his

own dignity and culture, but by simple honesty of word and purpose. If a westerner was at first a little suspicious of that finer breeding which could not be concealed, he soon respected it as he came to feel that there was an honest man behind it.

He is one who up to this his eighty-first year has never fallen into deep ruts of any sort, never ceased to grow with the growth of life, never taken on that shell of habit which renders many men of advancing years incapable of appreciating anything but the past. "A man who has ceased to learn," he would say, "is unfit to teach"; and his own fitness was never threatened in this way.

Thinking that Mr. Angell's great service was as a builder of that public education upon which the hopes of democracy rest, I shall say little of his relation to social questions in the narrower sense. He believed, and frequently said in his addresses to students, that the just solution of the moral problems arising out of our industrial development should be one of the foremost aims of young men enjoying the privilege of higher education. He himself took a direct part in this work as a lecturer on political economy, before a special professor of that subject was appointed; as president, by fostering with special care that and related branches of study, and even by serving as arbitrator between labor and capital, as in the case of certain street-railway difficulties in Detroit. Although his duties were not such as to make him a specialist in the newer sociology and philanthropy, he had a general knowledge of and sympathy with them, and (which is more to the purpose) it was the whole tendency of his work and of his character to build up in our country those conditions upon which their success must depend.

THE MONTH'S INDUSTRIAL SURVEY

GRAHAM TAYLOR

LEGISLATION AND CO-OPERATION

The organized interest in industrial legislation intelligently and constructively shown by all classes involved is one of the most hopeful, because most fundamental movements making for justice and peace. How representative the people are who form the American Association for Labor Legislation was manifest at the spring meeting of its general administrative council last month at Chicago. The president of the association, Prof. Henry W. Farnam of Yale University, presided. Professors Ely and Commons, John B. Andrews and Miss Irene Osgood from the University of Wisconsin, Professor Hotchkiss of Northwestern University, Prof. Ernest Freund of the Chicago University Law School, and Professor Taylor of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, were among those who represented academic interests and co-operation in the movement. The trade unions were represented by John P. Frey, editor of the *Iron Moulders Journal*, Cincinnati; Hugh R. Fuller, legislative representative of the railway trainmen, Washington, and Mrs. Raymond Robins, president of the National Woman's Trade Union League. Among the officials present were William McEwen, commissioner of labor of Minnesota, and Edgar T. Davies, chief factory inspector of Illinois. From the settlement constituency were Jane Addams of Hull House, Anna E. Nicholes of Neighborhood House, Mary E. McDowell of the University of Chicago Settlement, and residents from other houses. The socialists were Robert Hunter of New York and A. M. Simonds, editor of the Chicago *Daily Socialist*. A large number of local business men and labor leaders attended the luncheon and the dinner at the City Club which were the social features of the occasion.

Particularly happy were the responses

in the after dinner speeches from those who were in position to attest that the effort to secure equitable legislation was proving a common ground on which both employers and employes, the manufacturers' association and the federation of labor could co-operate with independence and without compromise. Especially encouraging were reports to this effect from Minnesota and Illinois. In the former state the united sentiment of the labor unions and the organized manufacturers was strong enough to defeat hasty legislation and secure the appointment of a commission to make a thorough investigation for two years to lay the basis for a law upon which both interests involved could agree. This result had already been achieved in Illinois by a state commission whose bill now before the Legislature was formulated with the co-operation of the State Manufacturers' Association and the State Federation of Labor. The support of their constituencies secured the unanimous vote of the committee of the Legislature to report the bill.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF INFORMATION

The lack of trustworthy information regarding industrial conditions and social legislation was strongly emphasized, and in casting about for the means to furnish it promptly enough to be effective, the association unanimously concluded that it is a government function to render this service. A resolution was passed and sent to the president of the United States, the Senate and House of Representatives, stating the urgent need for establishing in the Bureau of Labor at Washington a division of information regarding social legislation and social conditions in the several states, the United States and foreign countries; and that the information so collected should be issued in such form as would be of the greatest immediate, practical value.

INVESTIGATING SOCIAL HYGIENE

The association took the following important action calling for and encouraging investigations of industrial hygiene by the co-operation of official and voluntary effort:

The fundamental purpose of labor legislation is the conservation of the human resources of the nation. The physique, vigor and wideawake intelligence of the future wage-earning population is of greater importance than the conservation of our natural resources. Wise legislation on either subject cannot be enacted unless it is based on thorough, scientific investigation. Such investigation is imperative also as an aid to the courts in determining the constitutionality of labor laws brought before them. The decisions of the courts are clear that they rely upon the science of industrial hygiene in marking out the limits of the police power. As long as this branch of science remains undeveloped, the legislature and the courts can rely only on uncertain opinions and common knowledge. This is not enough to support legislation regulating the hours and conditions of labor. Employers and workmen also are seeking more exact knowledge in order that they may improve the health, vigor and efficiency of labor. The more exact and scientific the knowledge on this subject the more can be expected from the voluntary co-operation of employers and workmen without resort to legislation. In view of its fundamental importance, the American Association for Labor Legislation joins with the international association in urging upon all medical bodies and colleges, all bureaus of labor, boards of health, all philanthropic and charitable agencies and endowments, to take up and carry out the scientific investigation of industrial hygiene. Only in this way can the human resources of the country be conserved, just as agricultural and engineering science has been brought to the conservation of natural resources.

WHAT IS CONSTITUTIONAL?

In the discussion of this resolution Dr. Ely said:

The prolongation of human life and efficiency, the cultivation of human resources is most important. We can discover the great road to factory legislation by an investigation of industrial hygiene. Employers are interested in the health and efficiency of employees. The support of physicians and boards of health will be enlisted in our favor. The information they already have will be least likely to meet with opposition from the courts. If the New York bakers' case had been presented from the standpoint of industrial hygiene it would not have been lost.

The courts will support a reform which is reasonable and involves the health of the people.

Professor Freund said:

The courts are confronted with a mass of material not well thought out. They become suspicious. They should have before them well-worked out schedules of certain employments showing that protection is needed. If a general measure is presented it is apt to be unreasonable; if it is not general it is apt to be repudiated because of class legislation. A thorough investigation of the subject of industrial hygiene would revolutionize the attitude of our courts.

It was clearly brought out that the problem of hygiene was at the bottom of legislation concerning hours, accidents, age limitations, and general factory regulations.

PREVENTION OF HUMAN WASTE

T. K. Webster, a manufacturer, pointed out that the fundamental economic effort is to eliminate the waste in different trades. The material waste, he said, was being rapidly minimized by economies in the process and administration of manufacturing. And he advanced the strong argument for the salvage and prevention of needless waste in human life, blood and muscle by the same rigid application of business economy and foresight with reference to the human resources of every plant and of the working world. He strongly supported the contention that every industry should bear the burden of loss incurred by industrial casualties. He doubted whether employees should be expected to bear any share of the financial burden in providing compensation for injuries or deaths incurred in the performance of duty, since they took the risk of suffering the greatest loss involved in the hazard of trade.

Marked progress was reported by the secretary in the rapid growth of membership, in the formation of two state branches in Minnesota and New York, and in requests for organization from several other states. Participation in conferences on uniform legislation was provided and special arrangements were made for the annual meeting of the association next December in New York city.

AGAINST EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

The Bulgarians, the newest arrivals in Chicago, already understand the advantage of united action. Practically the whole Bulgarian colony organized a few weeks ago and agreed that they would not work on the railroads unless they were hired directly by the contractors, instead of through the dangerously expensive medium of the labor exchange. They have had the same bitter experiences with these agencies as other foreigners. Many of them have been sent miles from Chicago to jobs that did not exist, or that lasted only a short time and left them stranded at a distance from the labor centers. Among the Bulgarians organizing are men who have walked back from Mississippi, from Arkansas, from Nebraska and other places because they failed to secure the work for which they paid. Only the other day fifty of them paid ten dollars apiece to two men whom the commissioners of labor refused to license last summer but whom the Bulgarians supposed were still shipping men. Action has been begun against these men by the state but the fifty Bulgarians are ten dollars farther from jobs than they were before. But whether they have been defrauded or not after a winter of unemployment, all of them agree that twelve dollars is too high a fee for work in Montana which pays \$1.25 a day and lasts at the most a few months. Such are the terms these agencies are offering. The Bulgarians have earned the reputation of valuable workmen, so orders are coming to the agents for Bulgarians and they are fearful that they will lose old customers unless this organization is broken up. The League for the Protection of Immigrants has been interested in the movement. It will join in an appeal to the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad to employ the men either through their own officers or through the Illinois Free Employment Agencies.

TEST OF COMPETENCY UPHELD

The Supreme Court of British Columbia, sitting at Vancouver, has handed down a decision in an appeal case that is of great interest. The plaintiff in the

case was a stone cutter from England, who applied for membership in the union, and obtained certain work at the trade as a test of competency. He objected to the test on the ground that the work was different from what he was accustomed to, and he was refused admission to the union. The men working with him notified the employer that they would not work with him, thus forcing his discharge to avert a strike. The stone cutter sued the union, through its secretary, for damages for loss of employment, and was successful in the lower court. On appeal the legality of the union's action was upheld and the action dismissed. The chief justice's opinion, both in its spirit and decisions, has such bearing upon recent judicial utterances and judgments in notorious American labor cases that it is worthy of note:

In no case is there a greater obligation on the court to be alert in maintaining the rights of both parties than in that originating in trade or labor disputes, in none is it more difficult for the court to satisfy all persons that it has lived up to the time honored tradition that it holds an even scale.

It cannot be disputed that a body of workmen may, for the protection of their trade and the promotion of their interests, associate themselves together, and prescribe conditions for the admission or rejection of others to the association, and, if any condition appears to work hardship by resulting in the rejection of any applicant, there is no remedy by which that body can be forced to associate themselves with the applicant.

Similarly any body of men may decide for themselves the conditions under which they will agree to render service, to whom and with whom, and this involves the proceeding that they may quit an employer's service, having due regard to existing contracts, if the conditions of employment are such as dissatisfy them. It makes no difference in their legal rights if they complain of such a condition as the employment of another who does not see eye to eye with themselves. They cannot be denied the right to settle for themselves whether they shall remain in the same employment, for with one or two apparent exceptions a legal act does not become illegal merely because done with questionable motives.

GOMPERS INJUNCTION MODIFIED

More in the spirit of the above decision is that of Justice Robb modifying and affirming the decree of Justice Gould in

the Buck Stove and Range Company case against the American Federation of Labor in the courts of the District of Columbia. It stops far short both of Justice Gould's judgment and Judge Wright's sentence in holding that the defendants cannot be restrained from all publication referring to the Buck Stove and Range Company, but only such as are made in furtherance of an illegal boycott. Chief Justice Shepherd in a partially dissenting opinion declared that the decree should be further modified "so as to restrain the acts only by which other persons have been or may be coerced into ceasing from business relations with the Buck Stove and Range Company, but so as not to restrain the publication of the name of that company in the 'we don't patronize' column of the *American Federationist*, no matter what the object of such publication may be suspected or believed to be." While concurring fully in the decision handed down by Justice Robb, Justice Van Orsdel declared that to sustain such a decree as that of Justice Gould's injunction, "would violate the constitutional rights of a citizen, and would mark the beginning of the era of judicial tyranny by the branch of the government charged with the duty of protecting the citizen in his constitutional or legal rights." After reference to the constitutional guarantee of free speech and free press by the prohibition of government censorship in the constitution, he adds: "It would be difficult to conceive a more effective method of establishing a government censorship than through the writ of injunction."

These variant opinions coincide with the contention of Mr. Gompers and his counsel Alton B. Parker that Justice

Gould's injunction would be found unconstitutional at just these points where the freedom of utterance and publication were involved.

LAST WORK OF CARROLL D. WRIGHT

One of the best pieces of work done by Carroll D. Wright was completed not long before his lamented death. It was a little pamphlet monograph published by the United States Bureau of Education, as its Bulletin No. 6 for 1908 on the apprenticeship system in its relation to industrial education. After a rapid review of the origin of the modern apprenticeship system, and the extent to which it prevails in different countries both in statutory regulations and in actual practice, he discusses its three types: first that in which the shop and the school are intimately connected, second that under which apprentices are controlled to some extent outside of working hours, and third, the mixed types of apprenticeship. Each of these is practically illustrated by descriptions of the provision for the industrial education of apprentices in typical manufacturing and mercantile plants. The attitude of trade unions to the apprenticeship system and to industrial education is illuminatingly treated, and a digest of apprentice laws in the United States fittingly closes the volume.

DIGEST OF LABOR LAWS

The twenty-second annual report of the commissioner of labor is entirely devoted to a digest and summary of the labor laws of the United States brought down to the year 1907. With its condensation and index, it is an invaluable volume of ready reference for which all students of American industrial life will be grateful.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Dewey and Tufts's *Ethics*¹ brings into a single volume of a little more than six hundred pages an unusual amount of material of value to those who are in the thick of social struggles. One can be depended upon to hunt up what he needs to meet im-

mediate issues. Agencies for aiding such purposes are increasing with surprising activity but one is less apt to give due attention to finding that which will aid him to find himself and to see his problems in a more reasonable perspective than that afforded by the pressure of the present. The authors have stated social problems and the moral life of the individual from three sides, —The Beginning and Growth of Morality,

¹Ethics by John Dewey and James H. Tufts, New York, Henry Holt and Company, pp. 618, price \$2. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.

Theory of the Moral Life and The World in Action. The close association of both authors with Jane Addams and other practical workers and the extent to which their thought and experimentation have already influenced not only the school but other institutions give their discussions added significance. The third division is the one to which the reader of *THE SURVEY* will naturally turn first although he will soon be led to place the problems of civil society, politics, capital and labor and the family here discussed in the setting afforded by the historical and theoretical sections. The twofold movement is shown in this third or laboratory division to reveal "constantly increasing stress on *individual* intelligence and affection" and "constantly growing emphasis upon the social nature of the objects and ends to which personal preferences are to be devoted. While the agent has been learning that it is his personal attitude which counts in his deeds, he has also learned that there is no attitude which is exclusively private in scope, none which does not need to be socially valued or judged." . . . "The world of action is a world in which the individual is one limit, and humanity the other; between them lie all sorts of associative arrangements of lesser and larger scope, families, friendship, schools, clubs," etc., etc.

The balancing of these forces without tangential destruction on the one hand or merely stationary custom on the other, is a problem to every person, but his problem is a social one and an inductive formulation of experience such as is found here will have meaning to the worker in the smallest link in the social organization. A glance at the index shows the wide inclusion of topics dealt with in *THE SURVEY*. Perhaps no single chapter is of greater value than the one on *The Family*, in which a background is given for considering the many questions of divorce, club life, industrial education, co-education and other concerns of the sexes.

Kalamazoo.

FRANK A. MANNY.

* * *

For children between six and ten years of age *Peter Pumpkin in Wonderland*¹ by Ida M. Huntington, will have points of interest more especially if they have some knowledge of country life. The stories are not consecutive and deal with the principal holidays in the American calendar. They are well illustrated by Mary Isabel Hunt and Peter's adventures in Jack-o'-Lantern Land at Turkey Pen Inn, Santa Claus Land and all the other wonderful places, hold imaginative delights for the little folk.

* * *

Every housewife is interested in the fascinating title *Large Meals for Little Money*.²

¹*Peter Pumpkin in Wonderland*, by Ida M. Huntington, Chicago and New York, Rand McNally and Co. Bound in buckram, \$1.25. This book may be obtained at publisher's prices through *THE SURVEY*.

²*Large Meals for Little Money*. By Florence Kendrick Johnson, New York. The People's University Extension Society, 1909. Bound in limp linen ten cents. This book may be obtained at publisher's prices through *THE SURVEY*.

This little book prepared by Florence Kendrick Johnson and published by the People's University Extension Society of New York, is intended for use in settlement classes and by mothers of all classes. Brevity is one of its drawbacks and in many instances apparent lack of seasoning in the recipes is another. The general tone while giving the utmost of nutritive value at very slight outlay—most commendable in itself—does not allow for national individuality in taste. This might prove a drawback in settlement neighborhoods where its simplicity would not attract unaccustomed palates.

* * *

Imagine the readers of a great New York daily holding a mass meeting to assist the editorial staff secure higher salaries. To those of us familiar only with the English press this seems impossible, yet such a meeting was held on New York's East Side where the citizens of a compact community have intimate personal relations with writers on the favorite papers.

The meeting was attended by fifteen hundred enthusiastic people in support of the striking staff of the socialist daily *Forward*. Resolutions were passed and it was decided to make an attempt to have the dispute submitted to arbitration. The demands of the literary strikers are for a minimum weekly wage with a guarantee of non-interference from the business manager of the paper. The meeting showed its sympathy substantially by contributing \$200 to the cause.

* * *

"Up to the present time day nurseries have been only for women whose husbands were dead or unemployed; that is, for women who were not being supported by men. The next stage in the growth of day nurseries will be those open to the children of women whose husbands are at work. It is beginning to seem far-fetched to say that a woman and three children are being 'supported' by a man who is earning an average of eight dollars a week. The children of such a family are given an improved daytime environment when transplanted to a day nursery, and the home itself, for the evenings, is improved by the addition of the earnings of the woman."—William Hard and Rheta Childe Dorr in *Everybody's*.

* * *

A recent writer in the New York *Evening Post* holds that in all twenty-two subjects included in the class work of the Young Women's Christian Association, all put to the trying test of self-support for girls, "none has been more difficult to treat practically than art, yet the wage problem has been solved without sacrificing the aesthetic impulse by approaching art through the arts and crafts. Practically all the graduates have been employed during this period of business depression and, when a firm recently discharged ten girls from its poster department and kept three, no 'Y. W.' girl was discharged, and all who were kept were from this school."

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A leading medical authority has recently stated that "one out of seven" of all the people who die is prematurely carried off by tuberculosis, and a large proportion of these through *dust-poisoning*, which, *if we choose, we can largely prevent.*"

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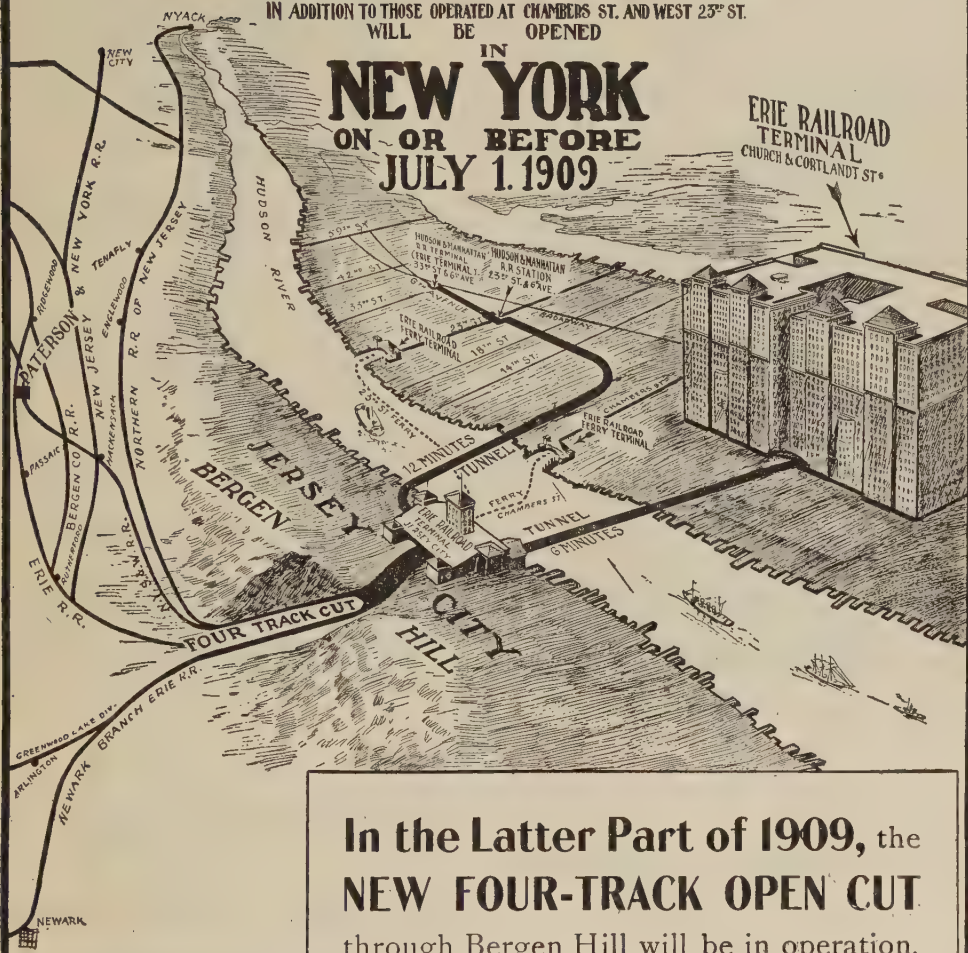
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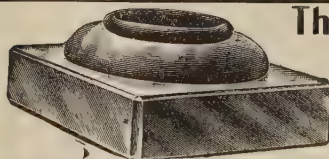
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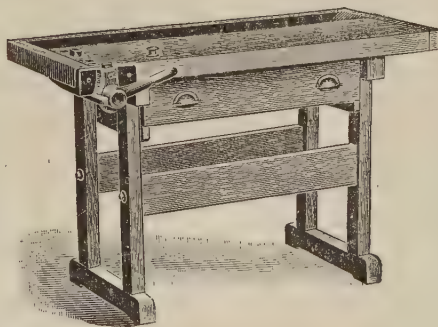
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BY THE EDITOR

PHILANTHROPY THE SAFEGUARD OF DEMOCRACY

The annual report of a charitable society bears upon its cover the saying attributed to Governor Hughes that philanthropy is the safeguard of democracy. We are asked whether this is not an error; whether in fact philanthropy is not, on the contrary, the safeguard of plutocracy. It might seem at first sight as if, at least for a politician, Governor Hughes had made a mistake. Many a demagogue has assured us that philanthropy is a bulwark of privilege and predatory wealth. Their line of argument has a certain plausibility. Rich gifts to religion, education and charity seem capable of serving the twofold purpose of quieting the conscience of the givers, and diminishing the grumbling of that public which they have been exploiting and defrauding. Q. E. D.

But there are several missing links in this brief chain of reasoning. Philanthropy may seem to serve these purposes without actually doing so. The evidence that it serves either one is lacking. We do not pretend to know whether an uneasy conscience is really satisfied by acts which have so little relation to the causes of the uneasiness, but in the absence of evidence either way, we consider it a safe guess that any such attempt at atonement is usually a dismal failure. As to the other of the two unworthy ends which philanthropy is alleged to compass, there is ample evidence that it does not and cannot have any such result. If there are any who are making charitable contributions in the expectation that they are thereby purchasing the right to indulge in exploiting and predatory practices, and immunity from the consequences of that social wrath which has of late overwhelmed so many who had thought themselves secure, they are making a very serious error of judgment. The sentimental giver who expects even personal gratitude is likely to be disappointed; and the foolish giver who besides gratitude expects also that the recipient of his bounty will thereafter refrain from doing whatever he would have done otherwise in politics, in discussion, or, if it came to that, even in revolution, deserves very little sympathy when his inevitable disillusionment comes. Real gratitude for a genuine benefaction is quite as common as the sentiment of charity which calls forth the gift; but like the quality of mercy it is not strained. It is not produced by money given to a mendicant, and it cannot be demanded as the price of the most princely general benefaction. The philanthropist is impersonal and disinterested. He seeks to confer a benefit, not to enslave souls. The pseudo-philanthropist, who gives to salve his conscience,

or to make men satisfied with things which in equity and justice should cause dissatisfaction, if there really is such a person, is strangely unfamiliar with the present drift in practical social work.

Philanthropy is primarily concerned in these days with the standard of living. It seeks to put an end to such things as overcrowding, physical exhaustion from overwork, undernourishment whether from ignorance or from insufficient income, infectious and other preventable disease, and the manufacture of youthful criminals. It is sternly opposed to physical deterioration, and enthusiastically enlisted in every movement which tends to strengthen character and increase efficiency. Philanthropy is neither revolutionary nor reactionary. It is, however, social, educational, democratic, radical, and conservative. There is no inconsistency in the two last named attributes. Half the tragedies of history are due to the extraordinary confusion of thought by which radicals and conservatives range themselves instinctively in hostile camps. The philanthropy which conserves as the apple of the eye the great institutions handed down by the past generations, and insists firmly that some things are settled not to be reopened, may yet, because of its very appreciation of these institutions and precedents, have a keen eye for the remaining mal-adjustments, the new injustices and the heretofore unrealized opportunities. A philanthropist may uphold property and the sacredness of contracts with the utmost tenacity and still recognize that the gross mismanagement of New York's street railways should not in effect, by a farcical bankruptcy, deprive the victims of accidents of all recompense for their injuries. One may support the radical policy of attempting to find some constitutional method of preventing in other boroughs that excessive congestion which has taken place on Manhattan Island without sacrificing his reputation for conservatism.

Philanthropy is the safeguard of democracy because it promotes popular intelligence, protects individuals against degeneracy, tends to create conditions more favorable for complete personal development, aids in the detection of social injustice, and makes crime more difficult in high or in low places.

There is an imaginary philanthropy which, with resources drawn from dishonesty and oppression, spends a portion of this ill-gotten wealth in ways that blind the eyes and dull the sensibilities of the poor. Motives are difficult to discern, and American business men especially are not prone to wear their hearts on their sleeves. But unless we have grievously misunderstood the spirit in which gifts large and small are made by the thousands and the tens of thousands, they are given in true philanthropy, to make men stronger and more intelligent and better, rather than to make them ignorant and helpless. Philanthropy is a safeguard, if not the safeguard, of democracy. Other safeguards there are also, but philanthropy is not the least among them, nor of alien spirit.

THE COMMON WELFARE

RAW RECRUITS AND REGULARS

In a great room almost a block square, circled by a running track ten laps to the mile, with a good-sized, interested audience, the Conference and Exhibit on City Planning in New York opened Monday evening in the Twenty-second Regiment Armory at Sixty-eighth street and Broadway. It will continue through May 16 and will then be moved to Washington. A show in such a setting gains much in perspective. The big open drill room, a good two hundred feet to the side, looks larger than any hall filled with seats, and the frames on which the exhibits hang may be viewed at a distance for their general effect or close by for details.

The city plan conference is the logical outcome of the conference on congestion of a year ago. It is perhaps significant that the congestion show was jammed into small quarters—a massing of misery, frame upon frame, section upon section. A city plan for New York which the Committee on Congestion of Population and the Municipal Art Society offer as their joint remedy, spreads out in long broad aisles of suggestive diagrams and maps. The two will inevitably be linked in the public mind—condition and remedy, today and tomorrow. The spirit of the thing was unconsciously acted out the first night by the regular armory tenants. In the balcony was a clumsy squad of recruits for the regiment, one hundred and fifty boys stumbling over each other's heels and gawping helplessly at the sergeant's orders; on the floor below, mixing with the conference crowd, young militiamen in spruce khaki, trim, trig, alert, but some of them not a year removed by gymnasium and drill from the sprawling youngsters.

An analysis of the exhibit and conference will be published in a later issue. Here is recorded merely the opening of the first occasion of the kind in America. Its significance was enhanced by the representative group of city officials who took part.

FIVE-CENT FARE TO CURE CONGESTION

Jacob Riis made clear long ago that "you can kill a man as surely with a bad tenement as with an ax." John Martin might put it in a new way: "You can starve a man for lack of a street car as surely as for lack of bread." In a tingling little pamphlet, recently published by the New York Committee on Congestion of Population, he argues that "rapid transit is not chiefly a financial problem; it is a social problem. It is a question not of dollars, but of human lives."

"Chief among city evils, parent of a brood of other evils, is high tenement rent," he says. "Congestion, undernourishment, indecency, with their whole train of physical and moral breakdown, result from high rents—facts deduced from Professor Chapin's recent study which Mr. Martin holds to be 'the most careful, painstaking and scientific investigation ever made of living conditions in our city.'"¹ His own summary is: "In brief, although the laboring man in New York is paying more for rent than he can afford, a bigger share of his income than in any other part of any other city known, though he is actually going without food to get shelter, yet he is housed in such narrow, stifling quarters as make decency

¹The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City, by Robert Coit Chapin, New York, 1909. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Sent postpaid for \$2 by Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York.

and the rearing of good citizens well nigh impossible."

A hasty reading of the pamphlet gives the exhilaration of a moving-picture show, for instead of paying five cents to watch unreal men cavort over miles of country at Twentieth Century Limited speed, Mr. Martin would have us clear up congestion by running to the nearest subway station and dropping in a nickel. Indeed, his head-writer has gone twice as far and infers that we may have "a round trip for a nickel." But that seems almost too much to ask, even of a city subway.

Whether we have a new subway or not we shall pay for one. Lack of it will send rents up another peg in their grinding climb, when normal business conditions return. A million and a half people—300,000 families—will have to pay an average increase of seventy-five cents a month, judging by the normal increase of 1906. That will mean an additional annual rental of \$2,700,000, "a five per cent return on \$54,000,000, enough to build a subway." This may or may not be an equivalent of the sign recently hung in the surface cars, "To ride without paying your fare is to steal."

The need for low fares is unquestionable. The man of large family and small wages cannot pay even five cents to ride to his work. "Make the fare a dime and at once you put up a barrier of about ninety dollars a year, a seventh of his earnings or thereabouts, against his removal from his Manhattan tenement." It has been amply demonstrated, Mr. Martin argues, that private capital will not operate five-cent lines except for short hauls through crowded sections. The costs are too heavy, and the attempt of the Public Service Commission to force the surface lines up toward adequate service at five cents was followed by bankruptcy and consequent distaste of private capital for the business. "Corporation money is unavailable except on terms most unlikely to be accepted," but "postponement is crime." There is nothing for it but "city money must be used again." Some Columbus of finance may yet discover and chart the city debt limit,

and further agitation secure a constitutional amendment to provide "that dock and transit bonds which are fully self-supporting need not be reckoned as debt," but, as the Public Service Commission has argued, assets rather than liabilities.

This may give us one new subway, but the main provision of Mr. Martin's plan goes much further. He would pay for new lines far beyond expensive suburbs into the real country out of the land values they create. Using the City Club's figures, he shows that while the cost of the original subway without equipment was \$43,000,000, "the rise in land values in Manhattan and the Bronx, due to the subway after allowing generously for the full normal increase from general causes, was \$80,500,000 up to 1907—and the end is not yet. This territory could have paid out of its profits the whole cost of that part of the subway which runs through it and yet have cleared over \$67,425,000." Grants of cheap land which rapidly grew in value have helped pay for all but one of the trans-continental railways. Suburban trolley lines and the Hudson river tunnel system have been assured profits by large real estate holdings in the territory they open up. Such methods of paying for costly transportation lines have been widely tested and found sound, he says. Why not utilize them to relieve New York of her congestion and her misery? The city cannot well go into the real estate business, but it can make a tempting offer to owners of available outlying land: "You retain the land and take the net profits. The city will build the line, giving you free the services of the staff of the Public Service Commission costing, for transit work, about \$600,000 a year. You shall pay for the line by installments, spread over a number of years, when your profits have materialized."

By such a bargain, "fares need cover only the cost of equipment and operation" and, Mr. Martin holds, "by a combination of the rent-payers whom it would protect, the social workers whose duties it would lighten and the officials whose aim is the social good, the plan can be pushed to rapid consummation."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY LAW IN NEW JERSEY

There is nothing new or startling about the employer's liability act which recently became a law in New Jersey, which is thus among the last of some forty states to define and somewhat modify the common law rules of employers' liability. These statutes divide themselves into two classes—those which relate to employment in general and those which relate to certain specified employments. Thus in New York there is the general liability act of 1902 and the act which specially defines the liability of railroad companies, passed in 1906. The New Jersey act combines the principal features of these two New York statutes in one.

Briefly the New Jersey law declares that those exercising superintendence with the authority of the employer, are not fellow servants but vice-principals, for whose negligence the employer is responsible; that the "necessary risks" which an employe assumes are only those which remain after the employer has exercised due care in providing for safety and "has complied with the laws affecting or regulating such business or occupation for the greater safety of such employes"; so far the statute merely defines the common law. But it goes farther and provides that the questions of whether an employe by remaining in the same employment after knowledge of a risk, thereby "assumes the risk" (the most barbarous of the common law rules on this subject) shall be a question of fact for the jury; subject, however, to the usual powers of the court to set aside a verdict. Finally the law definitely provides that an employer shall be liable to employes for the negligence of any person "who has charge or control of any signal, switch, locomotive, engine, or train, upon a railroad. This is a serious limitation of the "fellow-servant" defence in one particular employment. The New York law goes a little farther including "car" and "telegraph office" with "signal, switch, etc." Many states are more advanced in this sort of legislation than New York and New Jersey. Colorado,

for instance, has entirely abandoned the "fellow-servant" defence.

The chief value in setting forth the provisions of a law like this is that it gives an opportunity to show what is left undone. It is apparent on the face of it that this New Jersey law leaves the injured workman and his wife and children to suffer the entire loss in case of all accidents due to the carelessness or mistakes of fellow-workmen, and in case of all accidents which are nobody's fault. There is not much to be said for such a law from the point of view of social justice. For a few years we shall go on slightly increasing "employers' liability," but sooner or later we must come to see the wisdom and justice of the European laws, which recognize the principle that an industrial enterprise should regularly share the loss that results from its accidents.

FEDERATION OF CHURCH ORGANIZATIONS

The Boston Federation of Men's Church Organizations has been formed, with Victor J. Loring as president, John L. Bates and Henry Parkman as vice-presidents, George W. Mehaffey as secretary and Albert E. Carr as treasurer. The purpose of the organization, as stated in its constitution, is "to facilitate the co-operation of the men of church organizations and religious clubs of the city of Boston, regardless of creed, in the promotion of mutual fellowship and understanding, private and public righteousness, and the general good."

If the addresses given at the initial meeting are any guide to what may be expected of the organization, the people of Boston should certainly encourage its progress.

President Loring spoke of the spirit of fraternity as a new phase of co-operation which permeates those organizations which have done most for our country. "When man realizes that it is what we put into life, and not what we take out, that shows true patriotism," he said, "he will rise to the full stature of American citizenship."

"The city of Boston has a problem on its hands," declared Dr. Gordon of the Old South Church. "The disgrace in its municipal government is known throughout the entire world. The aspect of deterioration in American life apparent in its municipal government is appalling. There has been an awakening of conscience in the past two years, and when it has meant systematic, harmonious, organized co-operation, success in municipal reform has come."

In defining the ends for which the new federation has been formed Herbert A. Parker said: "Our organization has got to have a purpose to justify its existence and it has got to pursue that object to live. Temperance, good government, preparation of our immigrants for intelligent American citizenship, saving the youthful criminal in the juvenile courts, these and all movements for improvement would be worthy objects for the federation to work on."

The drift of the meeting was further indicated by the presence of John F. Moors, of the Finance Commission, who was specially invited to discuss the charter. Mr. Moors said that since the revolution patriotism was only aroused by some national affair. Now the municipal patriotism and enthusiasm in Boston find their result in the Finance Commission's charter. If a citizen does not take it upon himself to be informed on this question and approve or disapprove it, he will have no right to complain at any misgovernment of the city's affairs in the event of the charter not passing.

It may be added that the committee of one hundred citizens organized to promote the charter is sending the final report of the Finance Commission to every one of the 110,000 registered voters in the city. Every type of organization which is not dependent upon or afraid of the politicians is manifesting an interest in the movement.

THE SOUTH DAKOTA STATE CONFERENCE

A well rounded program in which speakers of national reputation participated made the third South Dakota Con-

ference of Charities and Corrections, held at Sioux Falls in April, even more interesting than its predecessors. Exhibits from the School for the Blind at Gary, the School for Feeble-Minded at Redfield and the School for Deaf at Sioux Falls, and visits to the new shirt and twine factories at the penitentiary, were arranged for the delegates.

Dr. J. G. Parsons of Sioux Falls spoke on the Prevention of Blindness and Deafness, urging such measures as will enable South Dakota to maintain its low percentage of these classes of defectives as compared with older states. He recommended competent oculists and aurists for state institutions and more thorough inspection of public schools with constant watchfulness by the teachers.

Supt. A. E. Hutton of the Wisconsin Industrial School opened his address with a striking challenge. "Sometimes we forget," he said. "We become absorbed in smaller things, like digging the Panama Canal, revising the tariff or inaugurating a president, and in the great American games of society, baseball, bridge whist, politics and finance—we forget to live for our children and our neighbors' children, until in increasing numbers they begin to thrust themselves unpleasantly upon our attention as vagrants, incorrigibles and criminals—men spoiled in the making." Then we must turn quickly and patiently apply better training and truly reformatory treatment.

Speaking on the Child-Helping Movement, Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation urged that societies placing out children have a charter from the state board of charities and be under its supervision. A state agent should follow the children into foster homes and watch over them. H. K. Warren, president of Yankton College, arraigned county jails as "schools of crime." He found them no better in Dakota than in other states where they have been stripped bare of all excuse for existing as they are, and urged the value of the Minnesota law which requires approval of building plans and general oversight by the state board.

President N. C. Herschey of Redfield College, departing from the more practical papers, discussed The Place of Re-

ligious Education in Social Betterment. His conclusion was: "Religious teaching needs re-statement, calls for a larger, broader, saner presentation, free from the pettiness and littleness that drive men away from the church. Men everywhere need to recognize this larger message, embrace it, and find in it the highest ideal and the strongest incentive for social betterment, till the unfortunate shall find their good fortune in the happy throng and fellowship of the fortunate."

Other interesting addresses were on *The Problem of Degeneracy* by Dr. A. C. Rogers, superintendent of the Minnesota School for Feeble-Minded; on *Education of the Deaf* by Miss Frances McKinley, of the School for the Deaf at Sioux Falls; and on *State Treatment of Tuberculosis* by Prof. John L. Gillin of Iowa State University.

The 1910 conference will meet at Waukegan with D. C. Thomas of that city as president, J. K. Kutnewski vice president, W. H. King secretary and S. E. Young, H. K. Warren and Carrie M. Cleveland members of the executive committee.

THE Y. W. C. A. AND WOMEN WHO WORK

The conference of employed officers of the Young Women's Christian Association June 27-29 at Minneapolis will bring out in strong relief the social service features of the organization. Religious, protective and purely social features have not been superseded or even overshadowed, but the association, first through a specially organized extension department, has found its chief opportunity among women wage earners. This year's report will state that "we are living in an industrial age, with an ever increasing number of women in the ranks of industrial workers."

Women in industry are thus far an ephemeral lot, "not classified in the wage-earning list for more than four or five years, a period little longer on the average than the length of a college generation. It is therefore a very short time in which we may do anything for them while they are thus engaged, but all the more reason that we should, since they

go into their own homes bearing the stamp which they have received in their places of employment, and the good or evil of the associations fixed upon them there. Many forces must work together before industrial and commercial life can be a means of elevation to women and we as an organization are one such force."

As a basis for its work the extension department undertook studies of "conditions in our country affecting womanhood and girlhood." Chief of these is one in charge of Annie Marion McLean of Adelphi College, Brooklyn, to be brought out in book form in the Macmillan Citizens' Library of Economics under the title *Wage-Earning Women*. With a staff of investigators and the advice, among others, of Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago, Dr. McLean has made investigations in the industrial centers of New England, New York city, New Jersey, Chicago, Michigan, Iowa and Nebraska; in the coal and oil regions of Pennsylvania; the hop fields of Oregon; the cotton mill towns of the South; and in the fruit counties of California. "The investigation of industrial conditions presented such tremendous problems in all directions that they were transferred from the city committee to a special sociological investigation committee," and this in turn developed into the extension department. The ripened experience of a lifelong student of work conditions will be drawn upon in an address at the opening session of the conference by Florence Kelley on *The Young Girl in the Business World*.

The association, following well defined currents of the day, is planning excursions into rural life to offer new horizons to country girls, and the travelers' aid work will be expanded into special efforts to serve the immigrant girl—a service for which the recent state Immigration Commission pointed a real need. As the report will say: "The possibilities of this extension department, its interests, its requirements, are fascinating; they are those of the country at large, for in the last analysis, Americans are what their environment makes them, and behind the environment stand the women of the generation."

UNIONIZING GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The strike of French government employes presses upon the public for decision the question whether the right of government employes to organize unions affiliated with the general trade union movement shall be recognized. This question is not new to America. It was raised in 1906 when the post-office clerks in Chicago and several other cities organized a national union and applied for a charter to the American Federation of Labor. The request was granted, but not without very deliberate consideration by the executive council of the federation, which realized the new precedent that was involved and the criticism with which the innovation would be greeted.

They were not, however, without precedents to guide their action. For eight years the Federated Association of Letter Carriers in Canada, which had been organized in every city of the dominion, had sent delegates to the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress. It was claimed that the letter carriers' condition had been greatly improved by the heed which legislators and officials gave to their organized protests and support of bills in Parliament. Moreover, in Great Britain the organized letter carriers and post-office clerks numbered no less than 50,000 and the Postman's Federation, with its 32,000 members, was not only organically connected with the British Trade Union Congress, but also with the parliamentary committee for the promotion of labor legislation. In England this unionizing of the postal service seems to have been accepted as a matter of course. Postmaster General Sidney Buxton officially declared in the House of Commons that "the time had come when postal employes should be accorded their full rights of combination and representation." To the letter carriers themselves he said: "It is an advantage to the country to have a strong and efficient trade union in the various branches of the service. The larger, stronger and more representative, the better it is. The bet-

ter the organization, the more likely it is to bring out the best men in it. The stronger the federation, the more responsible it becomes and therefore the more likely to carry out its policy in a moderate and reasonable way."

This is one side of the situation. The other side has been enacted in France in a way to arrest the attention of the world. The story is worthy of recital, both for its inherent interest, and on account of the inevitable bearings it will have upon the policy of other nations.

Under the law of March 21, 1884, teachers, postal employes, telegraphers, bureau clerks, government architects, engineers and mechanics organized mutual benefit associations. In 1894 one of these bodies, the *Syndicat de Fonctionnaires Marines*, struck at Brest. M. Clemenceau then argued in the public press for the right of employes of the national defense to organize, but not to strike. As minister of the interior, however, he failed to take the same position with reference to other public service employes. Now as premier he is faced with the problem of having the entire civil service, including even the prison wardens, and numbering over one-half million employes, organized as constituent parts of the *Confederation Generale du Travail*.

The strike of the French postal employes thus made possible will make March, 1909, memorable as the month in which the most impressive evidence of the solidarity of labor was given to the European world. The occasion for dissatisfaction was the attempt to substitute a test of merit for that of seniority for promotion in the postal service. The employes charged that it introduced personal favoritism and political preferment to the demoralization of the service. Because of his strict adherence to the new method M. Simyan, under secretary of posts and telegraphs, became the object of bitterest attack. His dismissal from the service was demanded, despite the fact that when under a previous ministry, he had officially urged the recognition of the postmen's right to strike, he was supported by the present minister of labor.

Hostilities began with a small local strike of telegraphers. This led the gen-

eral association of government telegraph employes to declare a strike on Sunday, March 13. By Tuesday, Paris and most other cities were cut off from communication with each other or the outside world. The English telegraphers' union wired \$5,000 to support the strike. That very day sympathetic strikes began and spread like wildfire through different departments of public service. Railway mail clerks, telephone and postal employes and letter carriers joined in rapid succession. When the firemen at the general post office in Paris and 5,000 linemen went out the combination was complete. Before the end of this first week, the inter-communication and most of the business of the country were paralyzed. Even the Paris police and the prison wardens offered the strikers sympathy and financial help.

The disturbance was promptly seized upon as a supreme opportunity for propaganda, both by the royalists and the revolutionary radicals, in the most inimical spirit toward the republic. This brought from the striking trade unionists an expression of their patriotism in assigning expert telegraph operators to the government foreign service, in view of the Balkan crisis.

The government at first stoutly resisted the demands of its striking employes. Soldiers were used as postmen. Suspensions from the service and arrests were numerous, followed by a threat to call out the reserves which, as most of the strikers belonged to their ranks, would have exposed those who refused to military discipline.

Then Paris and other cities began to feel the pinch of threatened hunger. The people's patience was exhausted and demands to settle the strike became insistent. But the administration refused to dismiss M. Simyan, or to reinstate the two ringleaders of the strike in 1906 who had been dismissed for inflammatory insults to the government. The Chamber of Deputies endorsed the government on March 19, by a vote of 368 to 211, and again on March 22 by 345 to 138 they passed a vote of confidence in the government's ability to restore peace and order. Just then, however, a conciliatory policy

was initiated. Negotiations between the strikers and M. Barthou, minister of public works, were successfully opened, through the latter's tact, firmness and broad public spirit. While declining to dismiss the under secretary of posts and telegraphs, which involved "administrative anarchism," he promised that no strikers would be dismissed or punished and that hereafter grievances might be submitted directly to the minister of public works. This concession is likely to lead to the adoption of the American policy of making the head of the postal department a cabinet minister. M. Barthou brought the situation to its solution by declaring that while "madness had possessed the staff of the service, a sponge would pass over the whole affair," and he explained that the merit system of promotion, which had caused jealousies among officials of the same grade, would yet remedy the varying methods which had been the source of the irritation.

With these assurances the striking employes in all departments went back to work and the menacing situation came to a peaceful end—at least for the present.

With all due allowances for the difference between the French and the English ways of trying the experiment of unionizing government employes, and with due regard for the balance between the apparent safety of the latter and the serious menace of the former, grave emphasis has been added to the disfavor with which the unionizing of government employes has always been regarded in America. While no one denies the right and the value of some form of organization among employes of every department of the public service, yet the affiliation of those employed to serve the whole people with the organization for the class interests of any part of the population, however large, may not only be seriously questioned but peremptorily challenged. No one will claim that the right thus to affiliate could be conceded to the army or to the police. It is quite as difficult for the public to concede that those entrusted with the civil and educational function of serving the whole people should have the right to combine either

to render or to withhold the service due all, in the interests of any part whatever. While the right of any craftsman in government employ to affiliate himself with the union of his general craft may not be denied, yet that by no means involves the right of those in any department of the government service to organize as government employes and then affiliate with the organization of any distinct class of the people.

Is not this the conclusion which appeals to American common sense? Whatever theoretical or even practical reasons there may be to the contrary, does not the possibility of a sympathetic strike by unionized government employes, such as menaced the peace and paralyzed the power of the entire French people, point an incontrovertible argument against the public recognition of the right of government employes to unionize?

COST OF GERMAN ACCIDENT INSURANCE

LEE K. FRANKEL

The report of the *Arbeiterversicherungsamt*, covering the financial statement of the accident insurance organizations in Germany for the year 1907, makes interesting reading, and is of particular value at this time when the question of a change in the employers' liability law is being considered by various states. Special interest is attached for the reason that the report gives the cost of accident insurance to the German employer, who under the law, pays the entire cost of such insurance.

The amount of the wages paid, based on the premiums, equals in the industrial trades associations a total of 8,410,136,305 marks, covering 9,018,367 insured individuals.

Owing to the difficulty of determining the wages paid in agricultural pursuits, the total amount of wages of this group is not given. The number of insured, however, is given, as 11,189,071.

The total expenditures of the indus-

trial trades associations (after deducting certain contributions of the insurance organizations of the building and mining trades' associations), equalled 140,547,596 marks (previous year, 133,030,544), and of the agricultural trades' associations, 38,816,819 marks (previous year, 37,877,491). The total was 179,464,416.

Of this amount, 137,182,277 marks was used for the cost of care of the injured during the legal waiting period. For the investigation of accidents and the determination of compensation for legal decisions, and for the prevention of accidents, trades' associations paid 8,517,248 marks. 19,080,244 marks was placed in the reserved funds.

The cost of administration for the industrial trades' associations amounted to 9,838,842 marks, and for the agricultural trades' association, 3,551,719 marks.

	For each insured person.	For each 1000 marks of wages.	For each in- dustry.	For each accident Reported.
Industrial Companies	1.09	1.17	14.59	21.11
Agricultural Companies	0.32	0.75	25.02

The cost of the current expenses differs very much in the various trades' associations. It depends on the number of the insured individuals, the number, kind and location of the industries and the risk of accident in the respective industries.

The total disbursements of the 535 municipal and provincial insurance organizations amounted to 12,277,370 marks, and the fourteen insurance departments of the building, mining and marine trades' associations, to 2,594,083 marks.

At the close of the fiscal year, the trades' associations had a total reserve fund of 254,154,335 marks. The insurance departments had a reserve fund of 1,348,301 marks. In addition to these amounts, the trades' associations had assets amounting to 37,745,698 marks, and the insurance departments 12,124,992 marks.

TWO WEEKS IN THE NIGHT COURT

MAUDE E. MINER

PROBATION OFFICER OF CITY MAGISTRATES' COURTS, NEW YORK CITY

"No, Judge, yer honor, I didn't speak to no man. I was just coming from moving pictures—me and my lady friend when this officer grabbed me."

The officer has sworn that his testimony given in the case is true and the evidence against the woman standing at the bar of justice is complete. The prisoner casts a hasty glance at the black gowned magistrate sitting behind the bench, another at the probation officer and then she proceeds to explain. Sometimes there is variation in the story. It is not always the "moving pictures" from which she was coming; often it is a restaurant, a theater and in the cases of some of the colored women a "parlor social."

Rosa is far more worried tonight than usual and is willing to tell her story. She has heard that a "bad" judge is on, and she fears the sentence he may impose. When a "good" judge, who fines, is sitting, an arrest is not so serious; but now when girls are being sent to the Workhouse and even to Bedford for three years, it is perilous to come into the court. Somehow the word goes around and fewer venture on the street and fewer come into the court. Occasionally, in the hope that another magistrate may be more lenient, a woman asks for trial in the day court; or if it be the last night of the magistrate's two-week term, she asks for examination the following night.

"I admit the truth; I told the probation lady about it," says another small, pale-faced girl, as she stands before the judge. She drops her head and tears come into her eyes. "I did it to support my little baby and me." It is easy to see she is not accustomed to the ways of the court and at once she excites our interest and sympathy. She is a girl whom we can help.

Each night there come into the Night Court—some new, some old offenders, most of them guilty of soliciting on the

streets, or of prostitution in tenement houses. Of the 262 women of the street arrested from March 16 to 31, and arraigned in the Night Court before Judge Cornell, 104 were sent to the Workhouse, seven to Bedford Reformatory, thirty-four were fined, sixty-four discharged with a reprimand, thirty-seven discharged for lack of evidence, and sixteen placed on probation.

Careful inquiry was made about every girl by the judge or probation officer, and when the woman showed any real desire to leave the wretched life and go to work, the opportunity was offered to her. Sixty-eight women were held for examination to learn if their stories were true before sentence was imposed.

Investigation is absolutely essential if these girls are to be helped. When they are arraigned in court they give false names, false addresses and do not tell the truth about family and friends. They have not sufficient confidence at first to entrust their stories to anyone—they are afraid they will be disgraced at home, or if they are under the spell of a wretched man who is living on their earnings of prostitution, that their lives will be endangered.

When a woman is held for examination for one or two days, she remains in the prison unless bail is furnished, or, with the consent of the magistrate, she may be paroled in the custody of the probation officer. During the two weeks which this article covers thirty of the younger and less hardened offenders were thus paroled to go voluntarily to the home of the New York Probation Association at 165 West 10th street, known as Waverley House.

One girl who did not accept the offer tells me how she regrets it now. She was sick after leaving the prison and her sister wrote to me: "Every time she goes to sleep, she sees the cell and the iron bars, and is almost afraid

to open her eyes for fear she is still there." Why should girls, not vicious, but erring, have the awful picture of the cell and the bars forever before them, causing them to become more embittered at times, when in a different environment they may be helped and encouraged to lead honest, useful lives?

Waverley House was opened February, 1908, as a temporary home, owing to the fact that there was no suitable place near the Night Court where women could be taken at any hour of night when they were willing to escape from the wretched surroundings, or while the probation officer had opportunity to learn if their stories were true. Twenty-five women can be accommodated at one time at the home. During the time spent there, the girls are kept busy, and enter classes in sewing, cooking, basket-weaving and gymnastics. Every effort is made to have the atmosphere as home-like as possible, and many welcome the privilege of staying a few days or weeks after they are released from the court until suitable employment is found for them, arrangements made to send them to their homes in other cities, to hospitals for medical treatment, or while cases in which they are to appear as witnesses are pending in higher courts. They realize that our interest is only a kindly one, that we want to help them, and if they wish that help, they tell the truth.

When we have visited the place where the girl has been living, have learned when and where she last worked at honest employment, and have seen the relatives or friends who are most interested to help her, we are in better position to know what is best for her, and the report of the probation officer aids the judge in imposing sentence.

It neither helps nor punishes a woman to impose a fine upon her for prostitution. If it is a small sum, two or three dollars, she pays it and often laughs as she leaves the court room. If it is five dollars or ten dollars, she is sometimes obliged to send to the disorderly hotel she frequents to get the money, but it is always forthcoming if she is a regular patron of any Raines-Law hotel.

"We're waiting for our fines," said two of the girls one night as they sat on the bench outside of the cells in the prison. "They'll have to send it; they always look after their girls," said another, naming the hotel to which they belonged.

Imposing fines brings into the city coffers money it should not be willing to accept, causes the girl to go to the streets to make more money because of what she has paid out, makes the bond between disorderly hotel and prostitute stronger, as she pays for her service by increased patronage, and renders it easier for others to enter a life of prostitution because there is little to fear.

Although it is commonly recognized that the Workhouse does not in the least aid in reforming a girl, the Workhouse sentence does act as a deterrent in keeping the women from the streets. "They know what they can do when they want the streets clean," said one girl who had just served her term at the Workhouse. "Commit us all for six months every time they catch us." Under the cumulative sentence a girl remains at the Workhouse five days the first time, twenty days the next, forty the third and so on; the fifth time it is six months. If a woman wishes to continue her immoral life, many times she prefers to serve the five or twenty days' sentence and then be free to return to the streets rather than have a probation officer supervising her conduct for six months.

When a woman needs a longer period of training and the discipline of an institution, as many do, the magistrate is justified in committing to the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford. Although the commitment is for three years many are paroled before that term is completed and are supervised by the parole officer of the institution for the balance of the period.

Even though found guilty the magistrate sometimes discharges a woman when she promises to return to her home, to leave the city, or to take up honest work, warning her that if she comes before him again he will commit her to Bedford Reformatory or to the Workhouse. The probation officer is willing to help her and occasionally she accepts an

opportunity to go to work, or is anxious to go home, if a ticket is provided.

One girl who returned to her home in Boston writes: "I am so glad to be home with my mother. You was so good to me, you was certainly my friend. My mother sends her best wishes to you. She would like to see you sometime. I have got a job, and expect to go to work and be a lady forever. I have learnt a lesson."

Another girl whose mother is sick at her home in Philadelphia writes, "I am going to be a good girl now and do all I can for my mother."

Probation is of help to the younger girls and those who have been leading an immoral life but a short time. It means that a chance is given to them outside of a reformatory institution and that while at liberty they have every opportunity to lead honest, upright lives. At the same time they are under supervision; they must report to the probation officer, she finds work for them, visits them in their homes and seeks in every way to encourage and help them and inspire them to better living.

Those who have been at Waverley House feel free to return to it at any time they are out of work, or in need of help. Some ask to be allowed to report there instead of reporting at the court, which is the Central Bureau of Probation, before all the probation officers, both men and women. This request is granted by the magistrate in the cases of some of the younger girls, and of others who because of work cannot come to the court at the appointed time. Apart from the environment of the court, there is better opportunity to talk with them and the report, while less formal, is often more helpful.

The sixteen women placed on probation during this period are of various nationalities. Eight were born in the United States and eight were born in the following countries: Sweden, Spain, Austria, Germany, Ireland, England, Russia. Five of these women have had children, two are caring for them at the present time, and two are pregnant. The reasons assigned by them for entering a life of prostitution, while they may

not always be accurate, are indicative of the true causes. Among the reasons given are: desertion by men who had promised to marry them, influence of older prostitutes, influence of "cadets," lack of money to pay for food and lodging, lack of work, low wage, dangerous work and desire for good clothes. Their own words express the causes more accurately. A Spanish girl tells me in sweet, rhythmical accents: "I run away with my sweetheart from my father when I was that way. From Spain he took me to England and then we sailed for America. What could I do when he left me! I got no money to live and they told me about the life, but I didn't think it would be like this. But then I didn't care what came."

An Irish girl had been working in a boarding house in the city until three weeks before her arrest: "I met her one night and didn't think she meant bad for me when I promised to go with her. We got to drinking and then I lost myself. I know it was awful wrong." She had been working a week when she came to report. "Oh, I'm so thankful to you," she said. "I'm glad I ever come to the Probation Home. My lady is so nice to me and is thankful, too. It's eighteen dollars a month I am making."

"I was broke and had no work to get money to live," said one girl as she told her story. "I had nobody here and I didn't know what to do. He offered a room and I took it."

"I was out with a show," said another, "and that's what started me in the life. The girls told me there's more good in it than there really is. All the girls really hate it."

"I thought I'd get style like the other girls do," said a girl, who did not look at all like a prostitute. "I saw them dress swell and make nice money."

Two girls, seventeen and nineteen years of age, came from their home in Pennsylvania three weeks before their arrest. They had worked in the mills until they came away and had intended to come to Newark, where the brother of one of them lived, and to go to work. A man whom they met on the train told them it was easier to get work in New

York and directed them to a furnished room house in Harlem. They did not have much money and he offered to pay the rent. The woman who occupied the basement was friendly to them, invited them to eat with her, and introduced her friends who came to drink and to play cards at night. Another seventeen-year-old girl had run away from her good home in the Bronx and had also sought refuge with this dangerous woman. The charge against the woman for keeping a disorderly house was dismissed when the case came up in the Court of Special Sessions, and the girls were allowed to remain at Waverley House as witnesses against the man who was charged with abduction of the seventeen-year-old girl.

Officers were informed that a man of notoriously bad character had brought a young woman to the city. They had seen her enter a bad furnished room house with him and they judged her to be a country girl. In the court she told how she had been sold into a disorderly house in Albany for twenty-five dollars and how she had tried to get away from it. She had written to this man whom she had known in Jersey City and he had told her he was working and offered her a home, if she came to live with him. She had brought with her ten dollars and he had taken that from her. He admitted that he was "bluffing" and that he had no work. He expected her to earn the money and suggested that she go on the streets. There was not sufficient evidence to convict the man, even though the ten dollars had been earned by prostitution. The girl was discharged and as soon as we were able to communicate with her relatives in New Jersey, she returned to them.

The "cadets" who live on the proceeds of prostitution are responsible for much of the tremendous wreckage of human life that we learn of in the courts. These are the men whom we must convict if we are to help the girls and prevent others from entering a life of shame. Three were sentenced during this two-week period to six months in the Workhouse, three others were discharged for lack of corroborative evidence and two against

whom girls were willing to testify, were not arrested.

A girl, nineteen years of age, told me her story: "My father beat my mother and I was sent to a home. I heard mother was dead, but I never knew. They left me out to work from the home when I was fifteen and I never seen her since. There was ten in the family and the work was hard. Then I took care of two children and helped the lady with the janitress work. They gave me four dollars a month. I thought I'd rather go to a factory and went to packing cigarettes. Yes, he married me. I ran away with him when I was sixteen and I've been on the streets for him ever since. I didn't know nothing about that life till he showed me. He beat me so I used to leave him, and go to my aunt. Then he'd beg me and promise to do the right thing by me if I'd try him again. The last night I was out for him I gave him twenty-five dollars and even then he's not satisfied. I don't care what happens now. I'm glad I told you the truth."

We learned where the man was living, had him arrested, and the girl made the statement against him. Her uncle and aunt were summoned and they testified that the Italian husband had admitted to them that he had sent the girl to the streets. It only remained for the judge to commit the man for six months to the Workhouse.

When Bertha was arraigned in court she claimed she was twenty-one years of age, had never been arrested before or in any institution, that her parents were dead and she had no relatives or friends. Later when she decided to tell the truth, and her story was investigated, I learned she was eighteen years of age, had a father, mother, four sisters and a brother in New York; that she had been arrested before and sent to an institution. After leaving the institution, a "cadet" had sent her to the streets and for six weeks before her arrest she had been soliciting. She told how he had followed her in the streets and refused to admit her to the room unless she slipped ten dollars under the door each night. "Even us girls in the restaurant said how

mean he treated Bertha, and felt sorry for her", said another girl who had taken pity on her. "I couldn't see her go that way and I gave her some of my clothes to wear. The coat and skirt she has on now belong to me."

"He threatened to put a bullet through me or to cut my face if I told and I didn't dare to tell," said Bertha, as she confided in me. Salvatore heard I had been to the house where they lived and the girls had told him I was anxious to see him. He did not want to venture into the court room, but sent a messenger to tell me he wished to speak with me at the side entrance of the court. I listened to his story and invited him to come into the office while we talked it over. While he was assuring me he was a steady worker and never took a cent from any girl, I led the way to the court room, and before he realized what was happening he was a prisoner before the bar. The evidence was sufficient to convict and he too is serving a six months' sentence.

It is most difficult to induce a girl to make the statement against the man, and not until she feels that we are willing to stand by her and protect her will she do this. She fears also the consequences if the man is discharged and declares that her life will not be safe if he learns where she is working. Even when the girl is willing to make the statement it is often impossible to find the man, for sometimes he has learned that she is "going against" him and he keeps in hiding. Then there must be the corroborative evidence which it is difficult to obtain, and if a conviction is had, it is only for six months at the Workhouse. The crime should be punishable by a more severe sentence and a greater effort should be made to bring this class of offenders to justice.

Much is being done to help the unfortunate girls and women of the city who offend against the law, but not nearly enough.

The prison at Jefferson Market is not adequate or suitable for caring for all women held for examination, and for commitment to institutions. The opening of Waverley House has been a step in the right direction. It has shown that

girls and women may be helped the more if held for one or two days in a different environment while careful investigation is being made to learn if their stories are true. It has shown the need of a detention home in close proximity to the Night Court, where a larger number of women may be received under commitment for the short period of investigation.

To make the necessary and most useful investigations, as well as to care for probationers, later, a corps of probation officers would be essential, organized so as to secure the highest degree of efficiency.

The finger print system of identification used in one station house last year for a period of six months with most excellent results, should be installed in this house of detention in order that the judge may have definite knowledge of previous arrests and convictions of prisoners when he imposes sentence, also so that if length of sentence depends in any way on the number of convictions, justice may be done.

Were it possible to secure medical examination of prisoners and for the judge to have a doctor's certificate before him, his decision could be all the more wise and merciful.

Then there should be more uniformity in the sentence imposed by different magistrates. It should not be a mere matter of chance, dependent on what magistrate is sitting, that a girl is fined two dollars instead of being committed to an institution.

If it is the first offence of a girl and she is willing and able to go to work, we should give her the benefit of probation. She may go to Waverley House if she has no home or wishes to escape from her wretched companions, and may remain until a good position is found and suitable clothing provided for her to go to work.

If a girl fails on probation or if she needs more moral and industrial training or medical care and treatment, she should enter a hospital training school which should be established by the city to meet the needs of these women.

The coming of the Night Court in New York city, through the efforts of Judge

Charles S. Whitman, has practically done away with the professional bondsman evil in the station house, has granted the prisoner speedy justice and has cut off some of the avenues of graft. It has at the same time, by bringing together in one court nearly all the women arrested for prostitution in Manhattan and the Bronx,

caused us to realize the necessity of working out a more rational method of dealing with offenders, has given us a new conception of the enormity of the social evil in our community, and has shown us that more must be done to cut off the sources of supply whence come recruits to the ranks of vice.

PITTSBURGH CONFERENCE ON DEPENDENT CHILDREN

The first Western Pennsylvania Conference on the Care of Dependent Children, which met in response to a call issued through the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, was notable for the size and representative character of the attendance and the broad and enthusiastic spirit of the delegates. As a result of it a permanent Pennsylvania conference of charities and correction is likely to be established. Francis J. Torrance, president of the Board of Public Charities, announced that he and his board stood ready to take the initiative in making the conference the starting point for a state organization and to this there was hearty assent. The meeting furnished new testimony to the effectiveness of the representative central council of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities. Through it eighty-three associations and individuals interested in child-caring sent out invitations addressed not only to the directors of children's institutions and societies, but to the matrons and caretakers individually, and they responded in large numbers. Almost one thousand persons registered and most of these were delegates representing every kind of civic and charitable organization.

There were two unique and particularly interesting features. One was an informal luncheon served each day, which gave opportunity for extemporaneous speeches and expressions of personal opinion which proved to be the most entertaining part of the conference. The other was an object lesson in art education presented by the Pittsburgh public schools. Twenty-eight children of various ages were chosen without notice

from different grades of six schools in the congested districts. They sat at long tables in the exhibition room sketching, modeling from life, designing book covers, weaving, making baskets and the like. The progress of the children was illustrated both by samples of work on exhibition and by classroom work performed on the spot. R. R. Reeder, superintendent of the New York Orphan Asylum at Hastings-on-Hudson, declared the work "not only high grade, but ideal."

The call for the conference recited the growing interest in the care of dependent children which culminated in the White House Conference in January. This interest and the extent of the work done for dependent children in Pittsburgh made it seem "desirable that in some way the various forces for child-caring in this district should come together in conference for better acquaintance with the different aspects of the local problems in question and better knowledge of the work that is being done."

Three full days were spent in conference and all fears that the later sessions would drag were dispelled by the increasing interest and attendance.

The morning and afternoon sessions of the first day consisted chiefly of five minute talks and informal discussion grouped around the general subject of methods and agencies in placing dependent children in family homes. The afternoon session was led by Edwin D. Solenberger, secretary of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia. His address included a discussion as to whether or not there are children now in

institutions who might better be returned to their own homes or placed in foster homes; how to detect and handle such cases; the proper relations between institutional and child-caring work, both historically and at the present; how far the methods of Massachusetts are applicable in Pittsburgh and whether the indenture system should be preserved. The session was characterized by a quick interchange of points between representatives of different types of organization and by the eager inquiries of the delegates who seemed bent upon getting at the heart of the question. At this meeting there was a noticeable relaxation of a certain embarrassment visible at the opening session and indeed from that time forward there was a steady increase of mutual understanding and freedom of expression.

In the evening Charles W. Birtwell, secretary of the Boston Children's Aid Society, gave a stirring address on the human aspects of child-placing. Among other topics he discussed to what extent, by what means, and with what safeguards dependent children may be placed in private family homes; the essentials of investigation and subsequent supervision of such homes, and to what extent payment should be made.

The general subject for the second day was institutional care. Five minute informal talks again took up the morning and in the afternoon Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent of the Philadelphia Girls' House of Refuge, discussed the standards for such an institution; the advantages and disadvantages of congregate and cottage systems; the essentials of grammar school work for institutional children; the relations between the school work in institutions and in the public schools; and institutional industrial training, particularly in its relation to utilizing the routine work of the institution itself as training for boys and girls. Mrs. Falconer held up a high standard. She emphasized the need for adapting institution to child even at the sacrifice of established rules and traditions. Her address was followed by a vigorous and sustained discussion by local specialists in institutional and educational work.

In the evening Dr. Reeder talked of administration with special reference to cottage and congregate systems. Among his topics were: Whether or not the law should altogether forbid the custody of children in almshouses; how to detect subnormal and defective children; what provision should be made for medical inspection, general hygiene, social prophylaxis, dental care; whether a clinic for atypical children should be established and how to provide for the detection and segregation of those with tuberculosis. His address was full of characteristic humor and interest and it was closely followed. Local medical experts took part in the debate, Dr. J. M. Murdoch, superintendent of the State Institution for the Feeble-Minded at Polk, bringing out the need for a clinic for atypical children. It was at this session that Mr. Torrance made his announcement regarding the organization of a state conference of charities and correction. The subject was so thoroughly presented in the meeting that everyone went away with a definite program for its development.

The subject for the final day was the proper classifications, training and duties of workers in institutional and child placing work. Interest in the sessions developed proportionately to the growing attendance and came to a climax in the afternoon and evening when a notable group of speakers including Alexander Johnson, Mr. Solenberger, Hastings H. Hart, W. H. A. Mills and Allen T. Burns came forward one after another in enthusiastic support of the plan to centralize information in order to insure efficient work for dependent children. This theme ran through the addresses both afternoon and evening. The best methods of co-operation between institutions and the associated charities were considered earnestly from different viewpoints. Mr. Burns struck a new note in a plea for trained managers as well as for trained subordinates in child-caring agencies. Dr. Hart, in charge of the Children's Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, discussed how a dependent child may be fitted into the charitable or correctional scheme of treat-

ment of other members of the same family; how to secure adequate co-operation among all child-caring agencies in Greater Pittsburgh, the form of records, and the need for a central registration system; whether or not investigations should be made by a central agency. Dr. Hart and Alexander Johnson, secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, who followed him in the evening, carried the conference to an enthusiastic close. Mr. Johnson considered what constitutes training for child-caring work; in what positions training is necessary; what constitute the essentials of adequate investigation; the circumstances under which a child should be taken from its home; by what efforts and under what circumstances it should be returned; to what extent and how the institution or the agency should keep in touch with the home and the relatives.

As a definite and positive result of the conference a resolution was unanimously passed asking the chairman to call a meeting at an early date at which one delegate from each organization represented may consider the question of developing a bureau through which all children's agencies and institutions in the city may co-operate. It is quite evident that the conference will result in increased co-operation between all the charities working in behalf of children and in the use of a central registration bureau.

Rev. Riley M. Little, president of the Associated Charities, was permanent chairman of the conference; Charles F. Weller, secretary, and Miss Florence L. Lattimore, assistant secretary.

The following signed the call for the conference:

Allegheny County Child Labor Association, Mrs. Lucy Dorsey Iams, chairman Legislative Committee; Allegheny Day Nursery and Temporary Home for Children, Mrs. M. D. Anderson; Association for the Improvement of the Poor, Mrs. Frank T. McClintock, president; Avery College Training School, J. D. Mahoney, treasurer.

Bissell, Mrs. Frank S.; Elizabeth A. Bradley, Children's Home, Mrs. E. H. Utley; Buffington, Judge Joseph.

Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, Harrison W. Craver, librarian; Carnegie Technical Schools, Arthur A. Hammerschlag, director;

Mrs. Paschall Carr, Catholic Lyceum, Rev. O'Connell, director; Children's Aid Society of Allegheny County, Mrs. George B. Moore, secretary; Children's Aid Society of Western Pennsylvania, Mrs. A. E. Sowers, president; Mrs. J. H. McLean, secretary; Civic Club of Allegheny County, W. M. Kennedy, president; Miss H. M. Dermitt, secretary; Columbian Council of Jewish Women, Mrs. Enoch Rauh, president; Columbian School and Settlement, Mrs. A. Leo Weil, president, Miss Minnie Affelder, secretary; Consumers' League of Allegheny County, Mrs. W. J. Askin.

Davis Temporary Orphan Home and Day Nursery for Colored Children, Mrs. George W. Cole; Day Nursery, of 1104 Sheffield street, Mrs. R. R. Ingram, president.

Eugenics Section, Academy of Science and Art, Dr. Frederick A. Rhoades, president.

Mr. and Mrs. George W. Guthrie; J. M. Gusky, Orphanage of Western Pennsylvania, Mrs. Josiah Cohen, president.

Charles W. Houston, secretary Pennsylvania Reform School; Holy Family Orphan Asylum, Emsworth, Pa., Rev. Caesar Laniacewski, superior; Home for Colored Children, Miss Jeannette C. Kennedy.

Industrial Home, Oakdale, Pa., John W. Cleland, superintendent; Industrial Home for Crippled Children, Mrs. Alex. M. Speer, president, Rev. Lyman Mevis, superintendent.

Juvenile Court of Allegheny County, Miss Irene Cowan, chief probation officer; Juvenile Court Aid Society, Miss Nannie Oppenheimer, probation officer.

Kay, James I.

Legal Aid Society of Pittsburgh, William A. Wilson; Levy, Rabbi J. Leonard, D. D.; Lutheran Inner-Mission, Rev. A. J. D. Haupt.

Marguerite Circle of King's Daughters, Miss Smythe, president; Mrs. Jas. F. Chalinor, secretary.

Nelson, Miss Evaline W., worker for Arch Street M. E. Church.

Oakland Day Nursery, Miss Mary McKee, president.

Park, Miss Eleanor; Pennsylvania Reform School, Morganza, Pa., W. F. Penn, superintendent; Mrs. Ormsby Phillips; Pittsburgh and Allegheny Home for the Friendless, Miss Louisa D. Speer, president; Pittsburgh and Allegheny Milk and Ice Association, Dr. Amelia A. Dranga, medical director; Mrs. Florence R. Wade, secretary; Pittsburgh Home for Babies, Mrs. Henry Finkelpearl, secretary; Pittsburgh Hospital for Children, Mrs. George W. Guthrie, president; Pittsburgh Playground Association, Miss Beulah Kennard, president; Protestant Home for Boys, Mrs. Clarence Pettit, president, W. W. Morton, superintendent; Protestant Orphan Asylum, Mrs. Letitia Holmes, president; Mrs. George B. Logan, treasurer.

Salvation Army, Major David E. Dunham; Sewickley Fresh Air Home, Mrs. Alexander Laughlin, president; Mrs. Robert Wardrop, secretary; Sisters of the Good Shepherd,

Troy Hill; State Institution for Feeble Minded, Polk, Pa., Dr. J. M. Murdock, superintendent; St. Augustine's Episcopal Church, Rev. Scott Wood, rector; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Rev. Louis F. Woelfel, president; Rev. C. J. Wiesmann, superintendent; St. Joseph's Protectors for Homeless Boys, Father J. E. Rockliff; St. Paul's Orphan Asylum, Idlewood, Pa., Father Lynch.

Thaw, Mrs. William, Jr.
University of Pittsburgh, Chancellor Samuel B. McCormick.

Volunteers of America, Capt. C. F. Williams.

Western Pennsylvania Institute for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, A. H. Childs, secretary, *pro tem.*; Whitehead, Bishop Cortlandt; Woods Run Industrial House, J. M. Jones, president; John D. Strain, head resident; Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind, H. Kirke Porter, president.

Young Women's Christian Association, Mrs. John G. Holmes, president.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The trouble with our farm laborers is that they do not know how to farm, and the reason for their ignorance is that opportunity is not given them to learn. Consequently the country is not holding the men who ought to be there and the city is crowding them away in congested districts where low wages and disease are doing their worst.

George T. Powell, president of the Agricultural Experts Association, gives this as his opinion in a communication to the *New York Times*. He says that in Ghent, New York, where he used to live, he has seen one hundred carloads of potatoes shipped to the New York market in one year. Recently western potatoes have been sent to this same town for home consumption. "The great need of our times is more enlightened work upon our farms and in market gardening, more intelligent labor with which these products may be grown in very greatly increased quantity and at reduced cost. . . . With the right kind of educational work given in a large agricultural demonstration school farm of not less than twelve hundred acres, the entire production of the farms for a radius of one hundred miles from New York city could be doubled inside of five years, which would greatly benefit the general business of New York and every transportation line running through these farming districts."

Mr. Powell believes that business men of New York could make no better contribution than to equip Columbia University with a proposed two million dollar fund with which a branch of instruction in scientific teaching combined with a most thorough practical training in agriculture could be given.

* * *

Street car advertising, posters, popular magazines, daily newspapers and technical journals are all preaching good health in one way or another. Either directly through signed and editorial articles, or indirectly through advertisements, disease and its prevention are getting their full share of attention. Among the attractive advertising folders of this nature is the Carbona Products Company's pamphlet—From Cellar to Garret.

"A textbook of household science," the book is called, and a well known list of contributors have written about the care of cellar and laundry, kitchen and dining room, floor covers and draperies, bedroom, sickroom and patient. It's an advertising folder on the face of it but, like much material of the kind, it is full of suggestive thoughts. Advertisements are certainly playing their share in the modern "health campaign."

* * *

Instead of closing up shop when cold weather and snow usually drive sports indoors, playground directors have a way of making even the elements work for them. Arthur Leland has devised "snow baseball" and described it in the Year Book of the Playground Association of America, which oddly enough came from the press the week the real baseball season opened. From the description it seems a game good enough to have in mind all summer for a trial when snow flies again. With fourteen men in diamond and field there is a series of snowball duels on every base the minute a hit is made. The game combines most of the features of baseball, tag and prisoners' base—enough to keep blood tingling on the coldest day. Mr. Leland believes it will give as much opportunity for team play as baseball and prove a good antidote for unlawful snowballing.

The Year Book consists mostly of the proceedings of the second annual play congress held last September in New York—a bulky volume of almost 500 pages, illustrated and indexed.

* * *

The report of the Henry Street (nurses') Settlement, New York, shows 61,869 visits in homes and 11,465 surgical dressings—figures piled up in a great, gross total of human pain which must in large measure have gone un eased except for Miss Wald's visiting nurses for whom her East Side neighbors "may come as easily as the well-to-do when they engage a private nurse." Almost half the cases were "reported by families and neighbors," including many of those "early arrivals from Ellis Island who are filled with much distrust of hospitals and institu-

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COMMUNICATIONS

FRIENDS OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR:

I assume that you do not expect a personal reply to your circular letter but I shall take advantage of it to congratulate you upon the change and felicitate you upon the happy name you have chosen and to promise hearty co-operation to this extent at least, that I will within a short time send you in many names from Newark who at least ought to be subscribers.

ALGERNON T. SWEENEY.

Newark, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR:

I have your letter announcing the change of name of *Charities and Commons* to *THE SURVEY*, and requesting co-operation in securing additional subscribers. I have been a reader of *Charities* for years. I think I may say that it is one of my favorite periodicals; it covers a field of work in which I am intensely interested. I have recommended it repeatedly to school men and to other friends of mine. I shall be glad to do anything that I can conveniently, to enlarge its field of usefulness. I think I should say, however, that I do not like the change in name. *Charities* has come to have certain rich associations and a certain place in my affections and I must confess that I feel almost as uncomfortable as I would feel in the loss of a friend in noting the change of title. I trust, however, that the adoption of the new name will not mean that *THE SURVEY* will be as colorless and purely subjective as the word seems to be in contrast with *Charities*. We have so many periodicals these days like *Review of Reviews*, *The Literary Digest*, *The Outlook*, *World's Work*, etc., that even with its suggestive sub-titles I have the fear that *THE SURVEY* will not be so suggestive of the distinctive mission

which I think *Charities* has thus far so admirably filled. I trust you will pardon the freedom of these comments and not take them too seriously.

With best wishes for the continued success of the periodical.

E. MACKEY.

Supervising Principal Trenton Board of Education.

JOTTINGS

No Change Until Fall.—Announcement is made that Miss Mary E. Richmond will not leave the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity to become head of the Russell Sage Foundation's charity organization extension movement, until October 1. Porter R. Lee of Buffalo goes to Philadelphia as Miss Richmond's successor on September 1.

Massachusetts State Conference.—The Massachusetts State Conference of Charities will hold its seventh session in Boston, October 19, 20 and 21. The president is Miss Zilpha D. Smith. Seymour H. Stone is secretary. The committees and chairmen selected are: The welfare of the child in school and home, Joseph Lee, member of the Boston School Committee, Boston; the results of child helping work, David F. Tilley, St. Vincent de Paul Society, Boston; social work with the sick and convalescent, Mrs. Alfred D. Sheffield, Union Relief Society, Springfield; hygiene of sex, Charles W. Eliot, LL.D., ex-president of Harvard University, Cambridge; drunkenness, Robert A. Woods, trustee Foxboro State Hospital, Foxboro.

To License Dancing Academies.—The Newcomb-Graubard bill for licensing dancing academies and preventing the sale of liquor therein has passed both branches of the New York Legislature, and will shortly come before Mayor McClellan for his official approval.

It behooves all the friends of the measure to urge its approval both by the mayor and Governor Hughes. When the bill was being considered by the Senate, it was slightly amended by the injection of one word, which, however, only makes the definition clearer, so that there can be no question that the measure applies exclusively to places where dancing is taught. This bill was the result of a lengthy investigation extending over almost a year made by the Committee on Amusements and Vacation Resources of Working Girls under the chairmanship of Mrs. Charles H. Israels. This committee drafted the bill and kept up a vigorous campaign for its introduction.

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PUBLISHED BY

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ROBERT W. DEFOREST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

DEMOCRACY AND PHILANTHROPY

We print elsewhere in this number two very interesting comments on the subject which we discussed in this place a week ago. Both the editorial from *The Times* and the communication from Mr. Howson help materially to elucidate the relation between the two great social forces which Governor Hughes joined in the statement which gave us a text. We plead guilty without hesitation and without any very deep twinges of remorse to the charge that what of truth there is in our tribute to philanthropy is the truth of prophecy, rather than a description of existing conditions. The prophetic present tense comes natural to THE SURVEY, especially on this page where compression of statement is perhaps sometimes carried too far. If to an entirely disinterested observer, a desirable evolution were clearly in evidence in an embryonic stage, we would be very apt to describe it sympathetically as having already taken place. It is a fault for which we might very appropriately be disciplined far more severely than in the language of our considerate and generous critic. We promise to be on our guard hereafter, and to give warning, if we think of it, when our discussion of social forces is to be taken with a grain of allowance, as fathered by the wish.

We have rather more difficulty in effecting a reconciliation with our correspondent. Mr. Howson's statement is shrewd in its analysis and in excellent spirit. As it leads, however, to a conclusion opposite to our own it is obviously our duty to set forth again our conception of the function of philanthropy and the reason for the divergence.

The nature of the difference is sufficiently obvious from Mr. Howson's own explanation of the meaning which he attaches to philanthropy. It refers "to acts of private individuals," excludes anything which anyone would call "socialistic," is represented by the "noted philanthropist" called "blessed" by the newspapers at his death, proceeds from an "overfull pocketbook" rather than a "full heart," finds its special field of usefulness in picking up the "bits left by the rude movements of democracy," has no power to prevent damage, but only to repair, which is its "primary object," and "in most cases" its end.

Philanthropy, thus limited and circumscribed, would certainly be a "stop gap" for, and not a safeguard of, a real democracy. It would also cease to attract a large proportion of those who even now, with genuine enthusiasm, with real sacrifice of time even when gifts of money involve no great sacrifice, with evident concern for the effects of their gifts, suppose themselves to be taking part in constructive philanthropic enterprises. They have no desire to be hailed as

philanthropists, before or after death; but they have, if we at all understand their spirit, a very strong desire to achieve real benefits, to lighten heavy burdens, to conserve not only life but health and vigor, to make men stronger rather than more comfortable, to awaken ambition and to give it scope, to eradicate the causes of human misery and failure. Perhaps we should at this point give the promised warning, that gifts of this high character are not yet the rule, at least not the universal rule. But they are by no means exceptional. Every important philanthropic enterprise, and many that are modest in their scope, have some such contributors enrolled. In so far as any enterprise is supported in this spirit, it is likely also to be conducted in this spirit. There is therefore a much closer relation between the effects of philanthropy and the motives of philanthropists than our correspondent assumes. Any contributor of ordinary intelligence who desires to have his gift result in a benefit rather than injury can readily make reasonably certain that the end which he has in view is accomplished. Whether his benefaction be large enough to create its own mechanism, or merged in others to be administered by institutions already in existence, it is easier than it used to be to test the efficiency of the channel through which it goes, and to form a sound judgment of its effect. One of the radical and wholesome changes in philanthropy is the more direct assumption of responsibility by officers and agents for actually doing what donors intend shall be done with their money. The modern social worker is an expert but not an autocrat. He points out needs and he co-operates in doing specific things, but his enterprises depend absolutely upon the enlightened and willing appreciation of social needs by those who have the financial resources to meet them.

We differ from our correspondent also in not sharing his evident preference for public over private philanthropy. The latter may be quite as constructive, quite as preventive, quite as democratic, quite as social, as legislation or public administration at their best. In the neighborly as in the political relation everything depends upon the spirit, the motive and the intelligent choice of means. Help given privately may either repair damage or prevent it according to circumstances. Personal counsel regarding the injurious effects of certain kinds of work, or work at certain times, may help a working woman quite as much as a statutory prohibition against working. Charitable assistance may obviate the need of working at the wrong time in an individual instance as well as a state pension. Whether the one or the other is preferable may be a debatable question, but it cannot be decided *a priori*, on the ground that one is preventive and the other only reparative.

True there is as yet no perfect democracy and no pure philanthropy, and we endorse unqualifiedly what our correspondent writes, that democracy is a most trustworthy safeguard against the sentimental degeneration of philanthropy. If aristocratic and plutocratic philanthropy represents certain rather low levels in the development of the social spirit, a democratic philanthropy represents a higher level. The antidote for Scrooge is democracy.

THE COMMON WELFARE

EMPLOYERS AGAINST SALARY LOAN ABUSES

The investigation of salary and chattel loans undertaken by the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce is bearing fruit after one month's inquiry. The special committee in charge has collected a mass of information, covering many cases brought to its attention in various ways including advertisements asking those who had had dealings with the companies to communicate with the committee. Conditions, methods, rates—the extortion and browbeating found in Pittsburgh—are familiar in almost every city. Some of the cases have been referred to the Legal Aid Society, which has long experience of the “loan shark” and his ways.

Pittsburgh has a unique condition, however, in the attitude of its business men. It appears that many of the largest manufacturers and high railroad officials are ready to fight the loan companies—that some of them, in fact, have consistently done so. A letter sent to every large employer of labor in Pittsburgh brought interesting replies. A manufacturer of machinists' and railroad supplies has refused to acknowledge claims for assignment of wages. One of the leading steel companies writes that “it has always been our practice to fight these institutions, and in all instances that have come before us where a settlement has been made, it has been reduced to a strictly six per cent basis. Our effort has always been to give the people in this line of business to understand that they could not conduct their business with our employes with profit to themselves, and every case that has come to our attention has been placed in the hands of our attorney.” Another employer in the steel industry recently had three demands for wages of borrowers on salary. He took the position that there is no law

in Pennsylvania permitting a garnishee for any debts but board bills. The result was “we have heard nothing from them for some time.” The treasurer of a railroad company says, “We never honor the assignments and no suits have ever been brought.” This attitude on the part of large employers of labor needs only to be organized and made general to knock the props out from under the worst features of the salary loan business, for if the employer protects his men the loan companies cannot drive usurious bargains as the price of secrecy.

There is promise of improvement from another source in the bill passed by the last Legislature and now before Governor Stuart for approval. It is based on the Massachusetts law which has found publicity in loan transactions an effective curb on abuses. The bill requires loan companies to hold a license from the clerk of the Court of Quarter Sessions and to record all assignments with him. More than that, an assignment of wages is invalid unless signed by the employer and by the wife if the borrower is a married man, as a large majority of borrowers are.

NEW PENNSYLVANIA LAWS FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN

Pennsylvania's two child labor bills, just signed by Governor Stuart, are regarded as a great advance by those who for four years have been at work on better laws for the 50,000 working children of the state. These bills, covering breaker boys as well as children who work in factories and stores, were passed in practically the form outlined in these columns a few weeks ago, the friends of the children losing only one of the important points for which they stood. The glass industry, by an exception carefully worded in an attempt to avoid unconstitutionality, is allowed to employ fourteen

or fifteen-year-old boys at night. A full account of this unusually interesting campaign is promised for a later issue at the finish of the fight which the State Child Labor Association is waging to displace the present chief factory inspector by one who at least is not violently hostile to the provisions of the new law, as the official reports of the present incumbent show him to be.

The new laws include a measure of protection for women and girls, in lieu of the special bill drawn by the Philadelphia Consumers' League, which died in committee. The bill which failed proposed to limit women's work to ten hours a day and fifty-eight hours a week, abolish work after ten P. M. for girls under eighteen and establish a minimum noon rest period of forty-five minutes. The provisions passed in the child labor bills were the same as these except that the ten-hour day and fifty-eight-hour week were established only for girls under eighteen—older women must look out for themselves. Practically all industries are covered.

The Pennsylvania factory act of 1905 provided a twelve-hour day and sixty-hour week for women and children and contained no regulation for night work of girls beyond their sixteenth birthday. But it had been inoperative in Philadelphia since December, 1908, through a judicial decision based on certain exceptions in the act which were held to make the entire section unconstitutional.

The Consumers' League bill had bright prospects when it was introduced. The Department of Factory Inspection accepted it and there was a good deal of enthusiastic backing, but while the bill was in committee a group of textile manufacturers, all-powerful in that state, manifested unyielding opposition to the enactment of legislation for women. They foresaw no injury to their own business, they said—in fact they declared that they would not be affected by such a law as their shops were already working less than fifty-eight hours a week. But they stood firmly against the principle of further legislation for adult women. On the other hand, they offered no objection to applying the fifty-eight hour week and

the night work prohibition to girls under eighteen—in fact they actually assisted the Consumers' League in incorporating these provisions in the child labor bill.

The operation of the new act will be watched with interest. One of two things is likely to happen. Either the law will prove ineffective through difficulty in enforcing a provision based on an age limit which there is no way of establishing; or else all women will be helped by enforcement of a regulation designed to protect only very young ones.

Girls under eighteen in practically every kind of employment will be protected. Those benefited by the prohibition of night work are chiefly the night-shift workers in textile mills, clerks and saleswomen in retail stores, telegraph and telephone operators, waitresses and others in restaurants and hotels. For all these nine o'clock is established as a closing hour—an hour, be it noted, earlier than the one which the Consumers' League itself asked for.

The nine o'clock closing will be watched with much interest at holiday time. Already the question has been raised, Will the big retailers remain open after nine by dismissing all employees under eighteen years, will they close at 9 instead of 10 o'clock, or will employers and factory inspectors find it "impossible" to discriminate between those who have and those who have not passed eighteen?

CAROLINE REST

FORMALLY DEDICATED

Caroline Rest, the home and school for mothers at Hartsdale, New York, the gift of George H. F. Schrader, manufacturer, inventor and philanthropist, was formally opened on May 5. More than 300 persons were guided about the handsome building and attractive grounds before attending the simple dedicatory exercises held in the living room of the home, at which R. Fulton Cutting, president of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, presided. Robert W. Hebbard, commissioner of Public Charities for New York, Dr. John Winters Brannan, president of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and Rev.



THE CAROLINE REST AT HARTSDALE. *Photo by G. W. Roddewig.*
On the left is the Caroline Country Club for Social Workers.

Dr. Dennis J. McMahon, director of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, spoke on the model equipment of the institution.

Mr. Cutting dwelt on Mr. Schrader's deep interest in the problems of New York's poor, and especially his sympathy for the women who, worn out with factory work and hard household duties, undernourished and ignorant of how to care for themselves, are forced to return to work within a week after childbirth.

The home accommodates thirty mothers and twice as many babies and young children. The work is supplemented by a corps of Caroline Rest nurses in New York who call on women before the birth of their children and give instruction in personal hygiene. Those mothers who need further instruction and rest are sent to Hartsdale for stays of two to four weeks, or longer, if necessary. The educational feature of the institution is as prominent as the recreative. Regular courses are given in infant and personal hygiene, cooking and other departments of home life in which the city nurses find the women deficient. Lecture and demonstration rooms fitted with every convenience are provided.

The first floor of the building is particularly spacious and handsome. The large sun parlor, living room and dining room are beautifully furnished and the kitchen and laundry are models. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, to whom Mr. Schrader con-

veyed the entire Caroline Rest fund, has complete charge of the home.

TRAINING SOCIAL WORKERS IN ILLINOIS

A bill is before the Illinois Legislature to enable the state university to furnish training for social workers similar to that now provided by the schools of philanthropy in New York, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis and London. A special feature to be developed is the training of employes for the various branches of state institutional and inspectional service—work similar to the successful experiment conducted at the Chicago school last year in giving training to attendants at institutions for the insane and feeble-minded. The practical results attained through the one month's course given at Chicago are attested in the numerous complimentary letters from heads of institutions both in and out of Illinois.

The special training proposed in the bill would be given, in large part, through brief courses frequently repeated, some at the state institutions, some at the university itself, and each planned to give practical suggestions for state institutional work. If the measure is passed, the University of Illinois will become the first state university to inaugurate the farsighted policy of offering special courses in institutional training. Among the endorsers of the bill are many of the leaders of public charity work in Illinois.

THE HEINSHEIMER BEQUEST IN NEW YORK

It seems somewhat of a paradox that at this time when the United Hebrew Charities of New York is curtailing its work for lack of funds, the executors of the late Louis A. Heinsheimer's will have practically come to the conclusion that it will be impossible to induce the six Jewish institutions named in the will to come to the agreement which will permit them to accept the million dollar fund left by the testator.

At the request of the executors, a meeting of representatives of these six institutions was held on May 4 for the purpose of considering a plan suggested by Alfred Heinsheimer which would carry out the spirit if not the letter of the generous will made by his brother.

At this meeting the executors presented a letter from Mr. Heinsheimer, in which he said that, inasmuch as a number of the institutions named in his brother's will felt that they were not justified in joining to effectuate the \$1,000,000 bequest, he was now prepared to offer, under an appropriate agreement, the sum of \$1,000,000 on condition that a committee be formed which shall "carefully and dispassionately study the entire question and, if possible, prepare a plan in which annual contributions to at least five of the six institutions named in my brother's will and such other Jewish communal institutions as it may be decided to associate with them, shall be collected from one agency, and appropriated to these various institutions, under an arrangement satisfactory to them." Mr. Heinsheimer stated that whenever a plan shall be adopted in which five of the six institutions and the executors of the will shall concur, the latter shall be empowered to pay over the \$1,000,000 to the body authorized to receive it under the plan outlined.

"It is understood, however, writes Mr. Heinsheimer, "that if the conditions expressed in my brother's will shall by any chance be fulfilled within the time therein limited, the one million dollars proposed by me herein to be placed in your hands, shall be returned to me. The same result

shall follow if the plan provided in this letter to be formulated be not effectively adopted prior to April 1, 1910."

After this letter was read the conference decided to secure a committee of nine to consider the proposal. This committee is to be composed of one member from each of the six institutions named in the will, with three elected by the six.

THE Y. M. C. A. AND SOCIAL SERVICE

At the conference of North American employed officers of the Young Men's Christian Association the first week in June, at Omaha, the general theme will be Present Day Objective and Relations of the Y. M. C. A. Interpreted this means "the association's mission to the men and boys of the continent." Important parts of the program will be special reports of commissions which have made investigations into the mission of the association to high school boys; to the native born of foreign parentage; to men and boys in and from the country; and to men and boys of the churches. An increase of ten million dollars in association property the past year and a projected increase of nine million suggest the scale on which these "missions" may be conducted.

The most significant development in recent years has been the increasing emphasis laid on social service. While no less stress is placed on "personal salvation," the idea of "social salvation" applied to bettering conditions of life, has taken strong hold.

The 609 city associations and the 225 railroad branches on the continent, besides the others, are opening better and more commodious buildings and extending their work, not only to provide for the bodily comfort of men—places where they can eat and sleep and play and study under the most favorable circumstances—but also to discover and meet new needs. Some of the most effective work is done at isolated railroad stations where the need is great but organization for improvement difficult. Special cars are run out on different lines to construction camps.

Efforts aimed to better living and working conditions in the cotton districts of the South, in the railroad construction camps of the West, in the congested portions of industrial cities, in mining and lumber camps are vital parts of the association's industrial work. In view of criticisms that at times the association has catered too much to the man with the "white-collar job," this growing part of the movement is specially significant. Much attention is given to the foreign-born. Special secretaries are provided in home fields, at foreign ports of embarkation and at American ports of entry to protect the immigrant from "sharps," to place information about the new country in his hands, to make his trip to interior parts as safe and easy as possible, and later to teach him English when he is ready to become a bread-winner. English, personal and domestic economy, hygiene and good citizenship were taught to six thousand of these men the past year.

The boys' work representing a membership of 160,000 boys under seventeen years of age, aims to meet "all the needs of all the boys of every community." This involves co-operation with every agency working in behalf of boys. The object is not only to help them individually but to help adjust their environment for normal growth. The campaign for better moral conditions among high school boys and the increasing attention paid to the recreative and educational needs of wage-earning boys, ninety per cent of whom are said to have less than six years of schooling, are prominent features.

Increasing work is done in rural communities and small towns where very little equipment is used, except that provided by such agencies as churches, school houses, town halls and libraries where men and boys are enlisted in a campaign for the social, physical, intellectual and religious welfare of their neighborhood. The Country Life Commission and the association leaders have been mutually helpful.

Increasing effort toward efficient citizenship was brought out at a recent dinner of the Educational Directors' Asso-

ciation of Greater New York. Particular emphasis was laid on the importance not only of increasing the working efficiency of men, thus raising their earning power, but also of strengthening higher ideals of citizenship. The 48,000 students in the day and night educational classes this year, and the half million dollars spent in this work, indicate in part the association's conception of its function in increasing social welfare by increasing the wage-earning power and efficiency of bread-winners. At one time this was held too "secular" to be included in a movement primarily religious. The change during the past twenty years has been tremendous.

The physical work is undergoing a radical change. Emphasis is placed not only on "floor work" in the gymnasium but on improving public health, preventing tuberculosis, encouraging and conducting playgrounds, recreation centers and baths, and improving conditions of employment, all in the heartiest co-operation with other special agencies. In an eastern city last year volunteers taught hundreds of boys to swim. Lectures are given on personal, domestic and public hygiene, and on first aid in industrial plants. The association has been instrumental in helping secure playgrounds and in many cases has furnished the supervision until other arrangements could be made.

The religious department has a definite part in such movements and developments. It has co-operated with all other departments, realizing that often to make the religious tenets of the movement effective, an outlet for social service must be offered. This was looked upon at first with some suspicion; it seemed too radical a departure from traditional ideas of religious effort. But now even the most conservative are beginning to see the importance of objectifying the Christian ideal in service, both "individual" and "social." The foreign missionary nowadays is sent out to preach "social salvation" as well as "individual repentance." A large part of his work, at least at first, lies in bettering sanitary conditions and ministering to the needs of a whole community besides trying to extend the

"kingdom of God" by an individual selective process. The association has caught this spirit in introducing modern types of physical training in the Orient.

Thus the Y. M. C. A. is rapidly occupying a larger place in modern social life. It has been suggested that in time a local association, besides its other functions, may become a training center or "clearing house" for social service.

FACTORY INSPECTORS FOR SOUTH CAROLINA

South Carolina has taken one step forward—a short and halting step, to be sure—but still a step forward, in the factory inspection law recently signed by the governor. By its provisions the commissioner of agriculture, commerce and immigration becomes the commissioner of agriculture, commerce and industries. His powers now include supervision of factories, workshops, mercantile establishments and all other departments of labor. The law commissions him to collect statistics on hours, wages, cost of living, capital invested, number, age and sex of workers, sanitation and prison labor. Manufacturers are required to render full reports annually on blanks furnished by him. He may subpoena witnesses and have free access to all places where more than five persons are employed.

He is specifically instructed to "make investigations as to the employment of children and women," and he may demand of employers a statement, signed by parent or guardian, giving for each child under fourteen the name, age, birthplace and residence. Children under fourteen are prohibited from cleaning machinery. Violation of the law or failure to give free and ready access to inspectors is punishable by fine and imprisonment. To assist the commissioner the law provides two inspectors, each at a salary of \$1,000 with an annual expense account of \$200.

The law is thus a small and experimental beginning. By the failure of the child labor bill the age limit stands as it was at twelve years, except for

children of widows or disabled fathers who may begin at any age the mill will take them; a working week of sixty hours and a working day of eleven hours, the last being an increase of one hour over the old law. Manufacturers have claimed that the eleven-hour day shortens the working day by one hour and is thus really a step forward because, they say, under the old law there was no daily limitation and by common interpretation a twelve-hour day was permitted. Those who urged the child labor and factory legislation declare that if any of the manufacturers took this position it was done deliberately for the purpose of creating such an impression that a definite eleven-hour day could be fixed without uproar. They point out that under the interpretation of the old law claimed by the manufacturers, mill hands could have been required to work a twenty-four-hour day for two and a half days each week, coming within the legal limit of sixty hours a week.

It may be questioned whether the provisions regarding the inspectors will prove effective. One thousand dollars may be a large enough salary to secure competent inspectors, but \$200 is not adequate traveling expenses for a man for a year. Inadequate, too, is the number of inspectors, for in South Carolina there are 1,500 establishments employing nearly 80,000 hands, and in the textile industries alone 182 mills employing 60,000 men, women and children. The two inspectors will thus have to visit and inspect two and one-half factories each working day of the year in addition to oversight of agriculture and transportation; and there is a serious omission in failing to require that all accidents be reported.

South Carolina has failed to take advantage of the experience of states which long ago passed through the transitional industrial period in which it now finds itself, but it is encouraging to see a predominantly agricultural community beginning to feel its responsibilities toward those of its citizens transplanted from farm to factory.

THE PLEA OF ARMENIA

Y. M. KAREKIN¹

To prevent—have I caught your gospel? To prevent famine, orphanhood, distress. It is with such words that I bespeak the interest of Americans to prevent the slaughters of my countrymen in Asiatic Turkey. Thirteen years ago, Armenia dripped blood. Then you responded from the largeness of your hearts—money, friendship, care for the fatherless. Oh, I ask it in the name of human-kind—do your part now, before it is too late; let the signatory powers know, let England know, that she may be strong in her friendship for us, let the new constitutional government of Turkey know, that they have to deal with the aroused sense of moral indignation of the American people. Others who are responsible for the continuation of this condition of affairs, are tied in the diplomatic tangles of the Porte. You are free handed. Let that hand write firmly. Let the text be bold for humanity. Let it say, whatever the turn of political fortune at Constantinople, this murder of old men, this mutilation of the soft bodies of little babies, this dragging of Christian women to hot lust shall not go forward. Do not, when it is too late, make us again beggars of your alms.

My plea is not a random one. After

¹(The writer of this plea for American representations in the Armenian Crisis, is a son of one of the leading men of the Province of Maamuret-ul-aziz in Central Armenia. His father was impoverished by the pillage and massacres of 1895, and afterwards government officials forced him to total bankruptcy by various devices common in Turkish government circles. Mr. Karekin's father was away from home at the time of the last massacres and barely escaped. The son, a boy a little over thirteen, fell in dodging a hatchet thrown at his head. His mother, who was near him, fainted at the sight. She lay in a pool of blood, and the Turks, thinking her dead, left her there. The boy, after seeing his uncle killed, although wounded himself, ran until exhausted and lay among dead and wounded bodies till morning, while the Moslems mauled them over, giving the last blows that left only corpses behind.)

The family was re-united but the father felt that his son had no chance in their own country and sent him to Constantinople. The massacres of the succeeding year coming on, the boy had another narrow escape from the mob, his guardian was thrown into prison, and he fled to this country. Here, befriended by the late Samuel J. Barrows and others, the boy earned his way through school and is now a construction engineer.)

the 1895 and 1896 massacres, central Armenia became a veritable field of orphan asylums. Different missionary organizations, the French Roman Catholic, German Lutheran, the American missions, established scores of them, at least two in each principal town, numbering in all in the neighborhood of 150 throughout the interior provinces.

Furthermore, for eighteen months there has been famine in Asiatic Turkey. The 1895 and 1896 massacres, brutal though they were, did not decrease the supply of bread stuffs, because the farmers had done their summer work and the massacres came in October. Now, the disturbances are coming at a critical time. This is the month for the farmers to plant. Should the seed time go past and another summer's crop fail, hunger would claim the country. Long, long before the outbreak of the present troubles, it has been harrassed in ways that leave it weak. The Christian is the farmer of Asiatic Turkey. The famine has not been of God's sending.

The old regime of the sultan is wholly responsible for poor conditions. Bribery and oppression at the hands of subordinate officials could be traced to his encouragement. Chiefs of different Kurdish tribes and influential Mohammedans have forcibly taken away the tillable land from Christians, on one pretext or another, mainly threatening that they would betray them as revolutionary men,—which is the biggest fear in the country,—and have turned these tilled lands into wild cattle pastures. On the other hand, taxation has been growing heavier and heavier every year. The sultan's official goes to the poor widow who has only one son of eighteen, a sole protector and supporter who tills the land with a yoke of oxen, the only treasures that he owns. The official conducts away forcibly that yoke of oxen and sells it at auction and leaves him helpless.

And we must remember that, in addition to untilled and tax-wasted fields, the Armenian massacres are adding the pillage and burning of towns, such as permanently impoverish the survivors. The wild Kurds who come down from the mountains, murdering the unbelievers and dragging the women off never to be seen again, scatter the wares of the small merchants on the streets and break the machinery and tools of the builders and growers.

Orphanage, famine and poverty—the toll of the massacre is not complete even with these. We must add sickness. In 1895, in those cities that were along the rivers, the bodies of the dead were thrown into the water after lying about the streets for a week or more. But in most of the towns the bodies were left on the ground on the outskirts of the cities without burial; dogs ate them and became ferocious, and the decayed skeletons threatened cholera, had it not been for the approaching winter season. That winter, half as many as were massacred died of exposure and typhoid fever. This year's massacre, starting in the southern part of the country where the climate is very warm, and gradually spreading to the north, has summer before it and will certainly mean cholera, for Mesopotamia is near the sources of the plague in Arabia.

We must see the Armenian massacres in relation to the situation at Constantinople. There are, perhaps, 2,500,000 Armenians with probably 20,000,000 Mohammedans in the country which they inhabit. They were loaded with taxes, and famine was starting in the country when last summer constitutional government was established in Turkey. Under the constitution, the provinces were to elect representatives with free votes. Instead, the Turkish officials threatened the public, especially the Armenians, into casting their votes for certain Turkish tyrants, most of whom were the leaders of the 1895 massacres. However, the Armenians succeeded in having eight representatives, two of them the most able lawyers of their country. During the nine months of the parliamentary session,

repeated complaints came from the provinces that the usual atrocities were growing worse. The president of the Chamber, Ahmed Riza, the present grand vizier to be, put them to one side and those who insisted on having their complaints before parliament were threatened with being thrown out of office; for the young Turks are Pan-Islamites, as pointed out in a letter to the *New York Times* by H. M. Dadourian, of Yale University:

The tactics during the elections of representatives, their attitude toward introducing reforms favorable to Christians, and the fact that they did not take a decisive action toward putting an end to the massacres as soon as they regained control at Constantinople, force the Christians to suspect their motives. Abdul Hamid is deposed. Turkey has a new Sultan. Young Turks are at the helm again. The question is: "Will these changes guarantee the safety of Armenian life and property?" History answers in the negative.

There is another element in the reform party in Turkey, which, while standing out for constitutional government and the empire, would leave large measures of self-government to the races and cities composing it. After the constitution was restored last summer, a number of broad-minded, well educated Moslem officials who were exiled by the old regime and who also were members of the Young Turk Party, returned to Constantinople. They noticed that the Committee of Union and Progress was trying to be all-powerful in civil matters and discriminating against different Christian elements because of racial prejudice. These leaders, the nucleus of the present Liberal Party, held that if five hundred years of tyranny and occasional butchery could not force these different proud old races to forget their nationality, the present system could not force them to do so and make them Ottomans now that they had been given freedom of press and speech. Besides, they pointed out, it was the Christian element which had advanced the commerce, the industry, the skilled labor and art. Let us maintain them, they said, and uphold our empire.

No sooner had the Liberal Party with its broader notions come into power,

early in April, than the reactionaries provoked the military uprising in Constantinople, which provoked the counter revolution of the Young Turks and has led by quick stages to the deposition of the old sultan. While the Young Turks were still marching on Constantinople, the ecclesiastics, suspecting what their fate would be, fled inland to the Armenian provinces to agitate massacre and plunder there.

My belief is that the **real struggle in Turkey** is yet to come, whether the program of the liberals or of the Committee of Union and Progress shall be carried out. The liberals have a certain portion of the army on their side, which has kept neutral during the last two weeks' troubles; the ecclesiastics are by no means shorn of their strength. An Oriental parable says that when the two horses fight, the donkey that goes between gets the worst of it. That is the case with the Armenians. What I plead for is such action by the Christian nations as will save them from slaughter whatever the outcome between the civil factions at Constantinople. It is all but farce to say that the Turkish government cannot control the mob. Turkish mobs are cowards and one soldier, if he has a proper command, can stop a hundred civilians if he levels his gun in a businesslike manner. For the Christian who had a gun in his house and threatened to shoot, the mob did not venture on that house. But Christians in Armenia are not armed. They are put into prison for ten years if so much as a revolver has been found in their houses; while the Moslems do business in the

market-place with revolvers in their belts as ornaments. Yet the civilized world wonders why the Armenians die like sheep.

Great Britain signed a treaty with the powers in Berlin that she would protect the Christians in Turkey. She has not washed her hands of the stain of 350,000 victims of 1895, and she is not much concerned now. Is this protection an honoring of one's signature? What has a helpless child to do with politics that it must die because Germany approves the sultan's actions for Bagdad Railroad concession; or because England and Russia cannot agree who shall take the best piece of old Turkey?

I do not wish to be misunderstood as a war agitator, for my most worthy teacher, the late Dr. Samuel J. Barrows, who has been my guardian since childhood, was a peace advocate. Yet is it not time for America to step into this matter or at least protect the honor of the Stars and Stripes which are flying on many houses throughout Turkey? America has, it is true, no direct relationship with Turkey, but American influence is felt by every power in the world. If America charges Great Britain to stand by her promise and put an end once for all to these Christian massacres, by putting the Christian provinces under Christian administration, no other power will dare resist such a demand and the willingness of Great Britain. America is more in position to take the lead than any other nation, for everyone knows that America does not seek territory, but the peace of humanity.

RELATION OF PLAYGROUNDS TO OTHER SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

HENRY S. CURTIS

WASHINGTON

To say that we are living in an age of great social awakening is a truism. To point out that the recent rapid development of social movements has been accompanied by a corresponding change in our conception of education and our con-

ception of government and its functions, is almost as trite. Perhaps, however, a brief glance over the outlines of the main movements and the present tendencies of development may be fitting at this time.

Twenty years ago the almost universal

conception was that education meant learning. For the average citizen it consisted of a knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history and similar subjects; for the scholar, it consisted of these plus a knowledge of various languages, histories, and sciences chiefly absorbed from books.

Needless to say, this is the common conception of education today. Nevertheless we are coming to see that there are perhaps more important things in life than knowledge; that for the majority scholastic education has little to do with efficiency in life's tasks or with happiness; that in order to be successful in the work we do, industrial education is far more necessary than scholastic education; and that our happiness is far more dependent upon our social relations, upon our ability to live on terms of friendship with our neighbors, to co-operate with them in common enterprises and the like than it is upon our knowledge of books. Two new ideals, industrial education and social education, have come into the field of education to answer to these new concepts.

The founders of this country held that the purpose of government is to protect every man in the pursuit of his own projects, to give him unhindered opportunities for life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. This is a purely negative ideal. It makes of government a big policeman armed with a code of laws to protect good people from aggressions by the bad. It regards public education as a necessary and proper government function because, having universal suffrage we must see that our people are not misled by demagogues and are not ignorant of matters on which they must decide. For the perpetuity of the state, therefore, it is necessary that the American sovereign be educated.

But we are coming to see that from the most selfish point of view from which the statesman can survey the question, it is quite as important that the people have social wills as that they have informed heads. It is quite as important that they learn to live in the community with contentment and happiness, loyalty, and a reasonable degree of unselfishness, as that they have the latest views on the tariff

and immigration. It is as important that they wish to do right, as that they know what the right is. So, from the mere standpoint of governmental stability, social education becomes as important as scholastic education.

But we have ceased to hold the old restrictive view of government—that its purpose is merely to prevent wrong. We are coming to see that government should be a great constructive force, that it should combine the forces of the community to achieve things necessary to the welfare of all, and that it is quite right and proper for the government to take over any common utility which can be administered more cheaply and efficiently by the community than by individuals. This process has been greatly hampered in America by the notorious inefficiency and corruption of municipal government. It has always been less wrong with us to cheat the government than the individual, to render it a dishonest day's work than to shirk for an individual employer, but we are getting a new social conscience. There is abundant evidence of an awakening along the whole line of municipal activity and, even under existing circumstances, the functions of government are rapidly extending.

As an expression of this new social spirit, we have schools of philanthropy in several cities, and chairs of philanthropy and social economics are being established in the universities. We find a new social trend given the training of teachers in the normal schools and more and more attention paid the social side of work in the classroom. We have such great gifts for improving social conditions as the Russell Sage Foundation and we have the almost phenomenal growth during the last decade of such social movements as the settlements, the Young Men's Christian Association, institutional churches, boys' clubs and playgrounds. Of all these the playground alone is a public institution. It is coming to bear very nearly the same relation to the others that the public school does to the private school.

To one who thinks of the playground as a vacant lot equipped with a few swings and see-saws, this may seem a far-

fetcher comparison, but the vacant lot soon had to have shelter for rainy days and for protection of its equipment, and the shelter is rapidly growing into the field-house in all our cities. The field-houses of Chicago, with their two gymnasiums, two plunge pools, restaurant, library, club rooms and auditorium, are practically non-religious Young Men's Christian Associations or settlements. They are the ideal toward which the playground systems of the country aim. A half dozen cities have already made a beginning and many others have plans for the erection of such buildings in the near future. When one public building of the kind is erected in a section of any city, it becomes almost necessary to erect similar ones in other sections, because no section is willing to pay taxes to provide opportunities for other sections that it does not itself possess.

Forty years ago almost every village in the East had its private academy. Today these have been mostly supplanted by public high schools. It seems probable that most of our present private social agencies will, in the same way, be supplanted by the public playground and field-house.

It seems scarcely necessary to say that this new movement of the government into the social life of the people is exceedingly dangerous. Probably at no earlier time would it have been wise, and it may be that many cities have not yet reached the point where it can safely be undertaken. If the field-houses, which will rapidly become social centers around which the community life revolves, fall into the hands of politicians, if the positions become the prizes of political retainers in need of jobs, if these social opportunities are employed for political ends, they may grow into one of the most dangerous factors in our municipal life.

Playgrounds are oftentimes said to be a fad. With many people they are a fad. Perhaps the majority of those who are taking up the movement throughout the country do so without a very definite idea as to what should be accomplished. The reasoning might be summarized thus: A neighboring city has done it, and we ought to give the children a place to play, so let us start a public playground. There is a common feeling that the playground is a good thing and that, consequently, all right-minded people should promote it. As a matter of fact any place that gives the children an opportunity to live in the open air and to play vigorous games is a good thing physically, but if not wisely directed it may prove a very bad thing socially. If the playgrounds become the resort where the "gang" impresses its ideals upon others, as it is almost sure to do without supervision, it will become a veritable school of crime. The greatest service which social workers can render this new movement is to give it ideals; to insist that it is not an institution for the making of health and muscle alone but for the building of character, that the people placed in charge be men and women of a high type; that social results be even more constantly sought than physical results—in other words, that playgrounds aim at the same things in character at which the private agencies, the Young Men's Christian Association, the settlements, the institutional churches and the boys' clubs have aimed.

The workers in these older institutions are already in the field. They have the knowledge and something of the technique required to guide the movement. This knowledge is needed in many cities just making a beginning, and social workers should endeavor to keep close to the new movement.

IS TAG DAY WORTH WHILE?

ARTHUR W. TOWNE

ALBANY

Is tag day an institution that should be perpetuated? Can its evils be done away with and its benefits retained to the advantage of those organizations that are being helped? Inquiries made by the writer in thirty-nine cities in New York state show the following facts which go to answer these questions.

Thirty out of thirty-nine cities replying held tag-days for local charities during 1908. The largest amount of money raised by a single tag day was \$15,031.33, collected in Albany for a local hospital. The amounts collected on other tag days were as follows: Amsterdam, \$2,391; Buffalo, \$12,968; Cohoes, \$1,500; Corning, \$1,236.88; Elmira, \$3,000; Fulton, \$800; Geneva, \$777; Glens Falls, \$3,356.14; Gloversville, \$840; Hudson, \$386; Ithaca, \$795.96; Jamestown, about \$1,500; Little Falls, \$831.01; Mt. Vernon over \$2,000; Niagara Falls, \$1,463; Oswego, one tag day, \$1,650; another tag day, \$1,170; Plattsburg, \$483.39; Rochester, one tag day, \$2,400; another tag day, \$7,280; Rome, \$968; Schenectady, \$6,100; another tag day, \$2,200; Syracuse, \$2,950; Troy, about \$3,100; Utica, \$4,315.35; Watertown, \$1,403, plus a gift of \$1,000; and Yonkers, \$4,850. Between 60,000 and 70,000 persons were said to have bought tags during one of the Rochester tag days. The corresponding figures in Yonkers were 50,000, in Gloversville 20,000, in Cohoes 10,000, in Geneva 7,000, and in Fulton 6,000.

The contributions for the most part were small. About 30,000 pennies were contributed in Albany. The following table shows how the collections ran in Yonkers:

<i>Received in</i>	<i>Yonkers (partial)</i>
Pennies	\$171.00
Nickels	630.10
Dimes	824.00
Quarters	1,122.75
Half dollars	275.50
Silver dollars, gold coins or bills...	1,338.00
Checks	446.00
Total	\$4,806.35

On a successful tag day one sees tags dangling from all kinds of people, rich and poor, old and young. Even automobiles, horses and pet dogs are tagged. A person feels uncomfortable unless he wears a tag. The tag sellers for the most part are young women, often working under older patronesses. In some instances, however, men and frequently children, sell tags. The number of sellers reported from different places has varied from only twenty to from 800 to 1,000 in Buffalo, and nearly 2,000 in Utica. As a rule the collectors are stationed at vantage points such as stores, public buildings, hotels and busy street corners, the stations usually being marked with banners or placards. Syracuse had about 350 such stations with from three to ten solicitors at each station. Often the sellers get aboard trolley cars, canvass private offices and even go from house to house, and waylay travelers in railroad stations, in their efforts to sell as many tags as possible. Usually the tags are on sale all day. In Albany the collectors began their work as early as four o'clock in the morning. Automobiles were brought into play to carry workers, supplies and messages.

So far as has been learned, only three of the cities reporting tag days during the past year had held them previously. Most of the organizations answering the question, had, some few months ago when this investigation was made, already decided to repeat the tag day this year.

In this magazine and elsewhere tag day methods have been criticized and in part this criticism has been justified. One objection is that a tag day unless properly regulated, teaches children to deceive and beg. A child, for instance, after buying a tag with a penny, may sell it for a dime or a quarter, pocketing the difference. When children are used as collectors they are liable to adopt begging ways. Another charge is that the soliciting is often ill-advised, as when travelers in railroad stations are besieged to give to a local charity about

which they know nothing. In some places the methods employed have been so bold that people have bought tags because not to buy would be embarrassing. In such places the tag day has become virtually a hold-up day. It may happen too that tag day methods are exploited by some relatively undeserving cause, and after an institution has held a tag day it may be indelicate for another institution in the same place to adopt the scheme. The tag day secures such a large number of contributions that it becomes a public occasion, and the money should therefore go to such institutions as most legitimately and necessarily lay claim to public support. The fourth criticism is that tag day methods ordinarily lack educational value. Many persons purchase tags without realizing what their money is to be used for, and furthermore, since the names of the givers are not recorded, they do not become steady supporters of the institution. It is a form of indiscriminate giving. Finally, it is said that owing to the promiscuity with which the tags are sold, young women are exposed to insult, although inquiries seem to indicate that this occurs very rarely.

In considering these arguments brought against tag day methods, it must be borne in mind that many of the arguments apply in some degree to other methods of raising funds for charity, while on the other hand the tag day certainly has distinctive advantages.

Its chief advantages for raising charity funds seem to be that in the first place tag days secure good financial results at a small expense. In Oneonta it cost only \$41.32 to raise \$1,238.84. As compared with bazaars and other forms of charity entertainments, the tag day method yields a much larger return, proportionally to the cost of collection. Then, too, this method collects the money quickly. Secondly, tag day stimulates charitable feelings and gives an opportunity for large numbers of people to give to charity, even though some can give only a mite. The spirit of the day is almost always one of public approval and cheerful co-operation. One person reporting on the event in her town, says,

"I have never seen Buffalo so happy before." Letters from other places make such statements as these: "It was a real gala day"; "Everybody was happy." Another advantage is that tag day can be used to give wide publicity to whatever institution is to be the beneficiary.

The success of the idea in securing great numbers of small contributions shows what large resources are left untouched by the ordinary methods of raising funds for philanthropy. The result of the sale of Christmas stamps by the Red Cross affirms this. Every community has hundreds and perhaps thousands of persons who are ordinarily never asked to subscribe to a charity, who are nevertheless glad to give a small amount when the request comes through a tag day. Of course, the tag day idea is relatively new, and it remains to be seen whether its value will be permanent. Unquestionably, the novelty of the idea has been an important factor in contributing to the results which have been achieved, and people are so constituted that in the long run a repetition of appeals must come in different guises. Already variations are being introduced as, for instance, "flag days" and "button days," and in some places coins are stuck on adhesive plaster. The principal factor, however, for success is abundant advertising. In Albany a campaign of advertising was carried on for several months in advance of the first tag day; the newspapers described and endorsed the scheme for months in advance; the city was placarded; the mayor and other influential citizens publicly endorsed it; meetings were held, and on the morning of the tag day there was a military parade. Another essential is proper planning and organization.

Following are some suggestions which seem desirable to observe in conducting tag days:

1. Collectors should not be obtrusive or urge people to contribute, and the immunity guaranteed by the wearing of a tag should be inviolable.

2. Children should not be used as sellers.

3. Regulations should be adopted to insure that tags are not resold by their purchasers. This can best be accomplished by

punching or marking each tag in the presence of its buyer; by designating authorized sellers by means of badges, and by having the public instructed concerning these rules.

4. Purchasers of tags should be given some information concerning the beneficiary, which can probably best be done by distributing descriptive literature.

5. Each collector or group of collectors

should have a sealed box with a slot, into which the money can be dropped; and there should be a system of checking and accounting for the returns.

6. Inasmuch as a well-advertised tag day takes on the character of a public charity day, it seems desirable that, so far as is possible, the day be made a general charity day for the benefit of a number of institutions.

MR. ROCKEFELLER'S GREATEST GIFT

WILLIAM H. ALLEN

DIRECTOR BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH

To lift an Alaskan river bodily from its gold-laden bed, to save a baby's life by transfusing into its veins the blood of its father, to make cactus leaves feed flower and fruit, are wonderful feats of science. Simple are these, however, and insignificant, compared with giving a new riverbed to the thought currents of humanity, making old motives inspire new habits, transfusing new life into old or weak reasons for altruism. Yet this is what Mr. Rockefeller sets out to do in his two chapters on *The Difficult Art of Giving* and *The Co-operative Principle in Giving*.

During the last seven years, widely heralded public gifts and bequests averaged over one hundred millions a year, while within the next few years, probably two billion dollars will be left in trust by a handful of men and women for public purposes of education and uplift. Awe-inspiring enough is America's public giving if we look only at gifts told in hundred thousands and in millions. But what limit is there to the possibilities for education and uplift if we could once ensure the proper spending of billions paid in taxes and of tens of millions given in small sums to religion, charity and education?

It is a new thought, but none the less true, that the way we, the public, manage our schools and our health, police, tenement and park departments, is profoundly affected by the way we think about millionaire giving. If twenty million adults in the United States think that a very rich man has the right to give away his money as he pleases, without asking whether it hinders or furthers hu-

man progress, or whether it is expended profitably or wastefully, why should we be expected to resent waste of public funds? Curiously enough, what the ordinary man thinks about his own spending depends very largely upon how millionaires talk about their spending. Therefore the tremendous significance of Mr. Rockefeller's accepting for himself and for all large givers not only Mr. Carnegie's doctrine that it is a duty to give away money, but also the still more important rule that *large givers are under obligation to give their money in a way that will ensure the largest possible returns to humanity*.

Mr. Rockefeller has this advantage over others who wish to change tradition and popular habits, that he can spend millions every year to illustrate and further his hand-book on efficient giving. If those who send appeals to rich men and those who know most about the present frightful waste in philanthropy and in church work, should critically discuss Mr. Rockefeller's propositions, it would not take long to sift the sound from the unsound and to make the great majority of the American public adopt for itself sound standards of testing public gifts by their results upon public welfare.

When a scientist discovers a cure for meningitis, or a method of saving grains from insects, the rest of the scientific world at once challenges and discusses, and the inventor or discoverer is expected to prove his contention with incontrovertible fact. Why should the world treat differently Mr. Rockefeller himself, when he ceases to be a giver of mere money and becomes the propounder of a philosophy

of giving? I am among those who believe that to prove to Mr. Rockefeller where he is wrong, and to prove to the world where he is right, will do more good eventually than Mr. Rockefeller's Institute of Medical Research, or even the General Education Board with its nearly fifty millions.

In this article, however, I am merely attempting to put in brief form the essentials of a doctrine which, if universalized, would infinitely increase both the extent and effectiveness of the world's altruism. Without comment, I repeat here several of Mr. Rockefeller's main propositions, except that one or two striking sentences—strikingly wrong or strikingly right, as I see them—the editor has promised to put in italics.

WHY SHOULD ONE GIVE TO OTHERS?

One's ideal should be to use one's means for the advancement of civilization.

I have always held the hope that during my life I should be able to establish efficiency in giving, so that wealth may be of greater use to present and future generations.

These rich men we read about cannot get present returns beyond a well-defined limit for their expenditures (on themselves).

I can see but one way in which wealthy men can receive a real equivalent for money spent and *that is to cultivate a taste for (public) giving where the money can produce an effect that will be a lasting gratification.*

DO NOT GOOD RESULTS ALWAYS FOLLOW GIVING?

It is easy to do harm in giving.

Enough money has been squandered on unwise (educational) projects to have built up a national system of education adequate to our needs, if the money had been properly directed to that end.

WHAT IS THE TROUBLE WITH PRESENT GIVING?

Today the whole machinery of giving is conducted upon more or less haphazard principles.

Good men and women are wearing out their lives to raise money to assist institutions that are conducted upon more or less unskilled methods—a tremendous waste of our best material.

People who have much to do with ministers and those who hold confidential positions in churches have had at times surprising experiences in meeting what is sometimes practiced in the way of ecclesiastical finances.

Probably the greatest single obstacle to the progress and happiness of the American people lies in the willingness of so many men to invest their time and money in multiplying competitive industries (charities) instead of opening up new fields and putting their money into lines of industry (and benefaction) and development that are needed.

Unnecessary charities are seldom abandoned when once the sympathies of the worthy people, however misinformed, are heartily enlisted.

ARE THERE SIGNS OF IMPROVEMENT IN GIVING?

All over the world the need of dealing with the questions of philanthropy with something beyond the impulses of emotion is evident.

The orderly combination of philanthropic effort is growing daily. We are making wonderful advances in the field of scientific giving.

WHAT IS MR. ROCKEFELLER'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS APPEAL?

Every charitable institution should constantly be making appeal.

It is highly important that every charitable institution shall have, at all times, the largest possible number of current contributors.

Local churches, local hospitals, charities, kindergartens and the like, ought not to make appeals outside of the local communities which they serve.

National and international claims *may properly appeal to men of large means, whose wealth demands their doing something more than assist in caring for local charities.*

It is not personal interviews and im-

passioned appeals, but sound and justifying worth that are attracting and securing the funds of philanthropy.

MR. ROCKEFELLER'S TESTS OF EFFICIENT PHILANTHROPY

Generous and adequate support; management by scientific, efficient and able men; *strict accountability of managers not only for the correct financing of funds but for the intelligent and effective use of every penny.*

One ought not to investigate a single institution by itself, but always in its relation to all similar institutions in that territory, so as not to inaugurate new charities in fields already covered, but rather to strengthen and protect those at work.

WHAT ARE THE GREATEST OPPORTUNITIES FOR GIVING?

The best philanthropy is constantly in search of a cause, an attempt to cure evils at their source.

It requires a better type of mind to seek out or start up or create the new than to follow the worn paths of accepted success.

If the people can be educated to help themselves, we strike at the root of many of the evils of the world.

HOW DOES MR. ROCKEFELLER HIMSELF GIVE?

For an individual to endeavor to keep close watch of single cases of need is impossible.

Until 1890 I was still following a haphazard method of giving here and there as appeals presented themselves. I worked myself almost into a nervous breakdown in groping my way, without a sufficient guide, through this ever widening field of philanthropic endeavor. I then organized a department of benevolence.

My assistants have an organization of sufficient size to investigate the many requests that come to them.

We uniformly ask applicants to state their case, tersely and as fully as they find necessary, in writing. Applications

are carefully considered by various assistants.

Written presentations form the necessary basis of presentation and consultation between various members of our staff, and of the final presentation to me, *thus securing for a cause, if it be a good one, a consideration that cannot be given in a mere verbal interview.*

We have not been satisfied with giving to causes which appeal to us; where organizations are not found ready to hand, the members of the committee have tried to create them.

Everywhere help is being given to those heroic men and women who are devoting themselves to practical and essentially scientific tasks.

Progress in government and law, in language and literature, in science and philosophy, in art and refinement, we have thought to be best promoted by means of the higher education.

The individual institution of learning can reach only a limited number of people.

If we assist the higher forms of education in whatever field, we secure a wider influence in enlarging the boundaries of human knowledge.

Most of the great achievements in science, medicine or literature are the flower of the higher education.

WHY SHOULD THERE BE A BENEVOLENT TRUST?

We cannot afford to have great souls, capable of doing most effective work, slaving to raise the money.

The teachers, workers and inspired leaders of the people should be relieved of pressing and belittling money cares.

The organization of work in combination should not and does not stifle the work of individuals, but strengthens and stimulates it.

The Benevolent Trust will look the facts in the face and will be sure to attract the brains of the best men we have in our commercial affairs, as great business opportunities attract them now, will sustain and applaud effective workers and institutions, and will uplift the standard of good work by helping all people chiefly to help themselves.

STATEMENTS THAT DESERVE STUDY

-There is not money enough for the work of human uplift and never can be.

If constant appeals are to be successful, the institution is forced to do efficient work and meet real and manifest needs.

Every new fact discovered, every widening of the boundaries of human knowl-

edge by research, becomes universal information to all institutions of learning, and becomes a benefaction at once to the whole race.

The principal cause of the economic difference between people is the difference in personality.

It is only the spirit of giving that counts.

All new facts discovered or set in motion become the universal heritage.

COMMUNICATIONS

PHILANTHROPY AND DEMOCRACY

The following was published in the New York Times of May 8 in the editorial column Topics of the Times:

In this week's issue of THE SURVEY there is an editorial discussion of the interesting question whether "philanthropy," in the sense of great gifts for religious, educational, and charitable purposes, is, as Governor Hughes recently said, "the safeguard of democracy," or whether, as so many more or less cynical people like to believe, it only serves the two-fold end of quieting the conscience of the givers and diminishing the resentment of an exploited and defrauded public.

The latter view, while a favorite with all demagogues, is not infrequently presented by persons not belonging to that class as at least supplying a plausible explanation of the distribution of millions in certain particular cases. THE SURVEY, while admitting the plausibility, first doubts and then denies the adequacy of the evidence at hand to support the unkindly theory. It cannot see how anybody as shrewd as the acquirer of millions must be can expect to quiet belated qualms of conscience by acts which have so little relation to the causes of the uneasiness. Others, however, do not, or at any rate did not, have the same difficulty, else would Dickens not have written A Christmas Carol, nor would that remarkable exemplar of bad logic and false sentimentality have gained or kept its amazing and discouraging popularity.

THE SURVEY, it seems to us, is on firmer, though still not quite trustworthy, ground when it says that, whatever may be the intentions or the expectations of the givers under consideration, they cannot, as a matter of fact, thus buy the right to indulge in predatory practices or secure immunity from the social wrath which has lately come upon several who thought themselves secure. This, as we see the situation, is true rather as a prophecy of conditions near at hand than as a description of those now existing. Beyond much question the man who devotes ill-gotten millions to good works does still silence the criticism of many in regard to the getting and set them at work volubly prais-

ing his generous beneficence. That many others, and a rapidly growing number, cannot be influenced by these cheap though enormous distributions of tainted money is fortunately the case, and even if THE SURVEY be not as yet entirely correct in its contention, it soon will be. It is certainly right, however, in declaring that true philanthropy, that very different thing from charity, is the safeguard of democracy because "it promotes popular intelligence, protects individuals from degeneracy, tends to create conditions more favorable for personal development, aids in the detection of social injustice, and makes crime more difficult in high and low places."

TO THE EDITOR:

The question of democracy and philanthropy is largely a question of terminology, and philanthropy, as Governor Hughes used the word, must refer to acts of private individuals, since public philanthropy seems for some reason always to pass under some other name, "socialistic", for example. There is obviously too close a connection between true philanthropy and true democracy for any separation to be made, but it seems improbable that we have as yet either the one or the other. While philanthropy and democracy both admit of a fairly clear definition in the abstract, the concrete philanthropist and the concrete democrat are old terms of dispute. In the current use of the word, whether it be a right use or not, surely there is a very marked plutocratic idea involved in "philanthropist." The "noted philanthropist", whose death is recorded with so much sympathy and space in the newspapers, is a man whose wealth allowed him to indulge beyond other men certain inclinations common to all men. More or less consciously, he had balanced up in his mind the relative attractions of philanthropy and, let us say, horse-racing; perhaps he had to decide whether to be a racing philanthropist or a philanthropic racing-man. He wisely chose philanthropy, for we have yet to hear of a number of rich men reduced to serious poverty through "running through their fortunes" by over-indulgence of their philan-

thropic instincts; and indeed an ancestor of this description is no bad thing for a family; it may add to their honors and to their titles, and it will not decrease their plate. The philanthropist died; the papers call him blessed. His gifts were "princely", his benefactions "munificent"; but in spite of the proverbial democracy of crown-princes and the real simplicity of "munificence," these are, as we use them to-day, hardly democratic adjectives. That which we call "philanthropy" does not proceed so often from a full heart as from an over-full pocketbook. Ministers of slum churches, teachers in slum schools are called "devoted," "self-sacrificing." Whether a man for us is a "philanthropist" or not, depends more on his bank account than on his natural qualities.

The effects of private philanthropy have small relation to the motives of private philanthropists; effects of the worst may come from motives of the best, and probably it is as a whole more the lack of motive among philanthropists that has resulted in the lack of effect of philanthropy. But in *Monsieur Bergeret à Paris*, Anatole France says something on this subject which every social worker should read and consider, in order to ascertain what function a social worker is called upon to perform for a modern community.

From one point of view, philanthropy is indeed useful for Governor Hughes's democracy: it can pick up the bits left by the rude movements of democracy. But if democracy ever becomes truly democratic, will there be these bits? Sometime women will not be allowed to work when they should not, and public philanthropy in the shape of legislation will prevent the damages that private philanthropy can only repair. If it limited itself to educating public opinion, the result might be different, but it is a most certain fact that the primary object of private philanthropy is to repair, and in most cases that is the end. The chief danger to democracy seems to lie in democracy itself, and in public philanthropy we can surely find a perfectly good defence. Modern philanthropy is in the end no safeguard of any political institution; it is more an essential consequence of the times and a step in the development of the social spirit. It is a stopgap for, and not a safeguard of, a real democracy.

But on the other hand I believe that it would be found perfectly true to say that democracy is a most trustworthy safeguard against any sentimental degeneration of sympathy and solidarity, the two great factors of true philanthropy.

ROGER HOWSON.

TO THE EDITOR:

I want to tell you how much I enjoyed your editorial last week on Philanthropy: A Safeguard of Democracy. I am so tired of reading about philanthropy as a salve to the guilty conscience and as a sop to keep people

contented, that it is good to see a real constructive view of it presented by one who knows it from A to Z, as you do.

H. R. MUSSEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

HOW THE POLICE MAKE CRIMINALS

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of April 3, under the heading *How the Police Make Criminals*, is an account of the wanton killing by a policeman in Chicago of an unoffending workingman, who was survived by a widow and child. You suggest that there should be some way for the widow to recover damages from the municipality. There should. Why, also, should we not have a criminal law that would provide for reimbursement to the stricken woman and child in another, and even more practical way?

A recent news dispatch tells of a prominent and wealthy officer of the Mexican army, who killed a man. He was sentenced to be shot to death, and his estate assessed to pay the funeral expenses of his victim and sixty dollars a month for twenty years to each of the victim's two children.

Why should we not have a law under which a modified form of this sort of penalty could be applied in such cases as that of the Chicago killer and the family of his victim? When he goes to prison, as he doubtless will (the crime for which he is indicted being manslaughter), why should he not be put to work at whatever he can do, or can be trained to do, which will earn the most money, and the money turned over to the widow and her child?

There is no doubt that the Mexican law in the case cited is ahead of our American criminal law. Our law seems to cover but half the ground. Where is the common sense or justice of allowing the dependent survivors of the victim of a murder to take pot-luck and shift for themselves, after their breadwinner is gone, while for the "protection of society" the able-bodied murderer is either put to death or imprisoned, no compensation going to the victim's family either from his estate in the event of his execution, or from the product of his labor in case of imprisonment?

If the murderer can work to earn anything for them, the penalty, even in the case of murder in the first degree, should not be death, but imprisonment, every dollar of his earnings as a prisoner going to them for a period to be fixed in the judgment of the court according to the necessities of the case.

Doubtless our legal friends will be able to think up an array of objections to the plan. But the main objection to it in my mind is that it has never been tried before. Why not try it?

GEORGE B. HASTINGS.

Buffalo, N. Y.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

TO-MORROW IN TURKEY

Last week we published a stirring appeal from a young Armenian engineer who has lived many years in this country, but who has kept in close touch with his people in Asiatic Turkey. His plea is for such active expression of sympathy for the Armenian Christians by Christian nations as will prevent further massacres and persecutions, and especially for such pressure of public opinion on England as will induce her to protect the Christians in Turkey in accordance with her treaty obligations.

Kurds and Armenians have long had their racial and religious feud, ready on any inciting cause to break out in slaughter, with the advantage on the side of the former because of support from Constantinople. It is said that in 1895 and 1896, this direct instigation came from Russia, with the deliberate purpose of justifying, and in effect forcing intervention and ultimately the partition of Turkey. England and other nations refused to permit such intervention, and the massacres came to an end without the dismemberment of Turkey. When, as a last desperate means of escaping from revolution, the old sultan and his agents stimulated the recent Armenian massacres, it was doubtless with the same deliberate design of forcing foreign intervention. It is natural that the victims of these massacres should cry aloud to Europe and America for help, and natural that there should be direct response. It is not so certain that England or any other Christian nation should be too ready to play the precise part thus prepared for them by the Turkish reactionaries.

The hopes of civilization at this moment are centered not upon European intervention but upon the Young Turks, upon the committee of union and progress, upon the liberal elements and the progressive elements in the nation. They have shown extraordinary capacity in revolution; whether they are to show even ordinary capacity in constructive government remains to be seen. This cannot be judged solely from the prompt adoption of reforms favorable to Christians. This would be one test; but from the Turkish point of view there may be other more immediate tasks to be undertaken. Americans kept the Negroes enslaved for three-quarters of a century after their free government was established. Americans should also remember, when they demand immediate success from the Russian Douma or the government of the Young Turks, that their own illustrious forefathers, with leaders of such consummate ability as Hamilton and Madison, and with the matchless advantage of the counsels and the prestige of Washington and Franklin, allowed eight deplorable years to lapse between the fall of Cornwallis at Yorktown and the inauguration of Washington in New York. Their problem was simple and uncomplicated, as compared with that of either Russia or Turkey. It was only necessary to overcome the natural jealousies

and misconceptions of a baker's dozen of English-speaking, self-governing colonies, who had had every opportunity to become acquainted with each other through six years of fighting for their common independence. Yet it took longer to find a way out of the wasteful and incompetent government which they had set up, than to beat off the armies of England. If, therefore, order is not instantly established throughout the empire, if reforms are not at once forthcoming, if there is even a period of rather feeble and tentative foundation building, this should not excite surprise. Bribery, corruption, espionage, bloodthirstiness, brutal military despotism, religious fanaticism, and popular ignorance have been so characteristic of Turkey, if the current public opinion is sound, that the amazing thing is that intelligent revolt should have succeeded at all. If the new government maintains itself, it will be in large part by showing a "decent respect for the opinions of mankind." By every other possible means than a resort to military force, America and Europe should make it clear to rejuvenated Turkey that mankind does not tolerate the massacre of unarmed men, much less of women and children.

Something depends, perhaps, on the attitude taken by the non-Mohammedan elements of the population towards the new regime. Greeks, Jews and Syrians are in much the same situation as Armenians in having much to gain from free institutions. It would seem as if the new Turkey could hardly attain permanent success without their sympathy and co-operation. The announcement that on the suggestion of the commander of the constitutional armies, a portion of the military forces will be made up of Christians, is of good omen. If the Christian farmers of Armenia and others who have been oppressed can make common cause with the constitutional party, this may well prove to be the best way to protect their lives and fortunes. Military intervention may be necessary and thereby justified, but it would put an end to the prospect, which to many seems bright, that there may yet be a real Turkish nationality, comprising, like our own and several others, peoples of various languages and faiths, securing by mutual concession and by due regard to self-interest a strong and yet just constitutional government.

America has never been deaf to the cry of the Armenians. At the moment relief funds should be raised to meet the distress from famine and from slaughter, and full responsibility placed directly upon the new sultan, the Sheik Ul Islam, and the cabinet for the speedy restoration of order. We may stand upon the firm ground taken by John Hay in the message to Roumania, that we have a legitimate interest in the prevention of massacre and persecution in any quarter of the globe from which immigrants come to us. This humane position on the other hand does not require us to form prematurely an unfavorable judgment of the revolutionists, even as to their attitude towards unbelievers.

THE COMMON WELFARE

QUARRY AND COLONY FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

During the past winter the plan by which Kansas City cared for unemployed men worked out so satisfactorily that it has led to the establishment of a farm colony which promises to make a substantial contribution to American experience in providing for homeless and idle men. Kansas City, Mo., and Kansas City, Kan., separated only by a state line invisible outside the covers of a geography, have a combined population of about 350,000. In common with all cities during the past year and a half, they have had not only idle residents, but also large numbers of idle visitors drawn by the hope of work or of easy living. There were enough of them to attract the attention of J. Eads Howe of St. Louis, who attempted to organize there a branch of his Brotherhood Welfare Association. Howe laid down four principles:

First, immunity from arrest on the part of the unemployed or vagrants.

Second, the establishment of a municipal lodging house.

Third, work for the unemployed.

Fourth, transportation to the job if not local.

The Tenement Commission had been looking into the situation a little and partially as a result of Howe's proposals made an investigation of the two thousand and ten-cent beds at the disposal of the homeless. It found a great many idle men. It found five hundred in clean beds at the Helping Hand, a private organization assisted by the city, and it found many more beds in other places characterized by every degree of filth. Men slept on floors of cheap lodging houses and saloons.

The results of the investigation were discussed at a meeting attended by representatives of a number of charitable organizations, the city, the labor unions,

and the unemployed themselves. A working committee of seven was organized with members from the Tenement Commission, the unemployed, organized labor, the Pardon and Parole Board, the Manufacturers' Association, the Associated Charities, the United Hebrew Charities, and the Helping Hand. This committee formulated a program:

First, that no man may sleep or live in such unsanitary surroundings as to undermine his efficiency.

Second, that all able-bodied men must work and have a right to work if willing. If not willing, they must be made to work. If they do not know how, they must be taught. If they are physically unfit, they must be treated medically in order speedily to restore efficiency.

Third, all free soup, breadlines and gratuitous charity must be discouraged. Food of the quality and kind necessary to maintain efficiency must be furnished as a right and in return for useful labor accomplished.

An opening to furnish work came through the Park Board which had engaged W. C. Root, chairman of the Tenement Commission, as architect for certain park buildings in connection with playground development. Mr. Root immediately saw the possibility of employing the unemployed on this city work. The Park Board agreed to pay the market price for building stone and broken rock taken from park property and the city offered to stand a deficit of \$2,000 if necessary. The entire management was left to the working committee of seven. In four days men were at work, an organization already in existence at the Helping Hand being utilized. The police were instructed to stop sleeping on floors and to send all idlers to the quarry. The Associated Charities and the Helping Hand discontinued their labor tests which were of such a nature that they had been operated at a loss, and made use of the public work instead.

The men were paid in lodging and meal tickets, good only at certain lodging houses and restaurants, at the rate of sixty cents a yard for broken rock. A man could average about one yard of rock a day. Married men and those having others dependent upon them were given preference in a small number of time-jobs at fifteen cents an hour for an eight-hour day. A man with a credit of \$1.20, earned in about two days, was laid off to hunt for a job. During the cold weather about one hundred and fifty men worked each day, the number gradually coming down to fifty in the early spring and still fewer now. Men have been constantly sent to more lasting jobs. Many quick workers were able to earn enough in one day to keep them for three days. Nobody was turned away. Although the committee had to buy its tools and powder and strip an open quarry, the total deficit made up by the city at the time this information was received was \$1,200. This is held cheap, considering what was accomplished. Foremen have found willing workers, there have been few idlers around the saloons, arrests for vagrancy have dropped, and the atmosphere of the town has been cleaner.

The winter's experience led the committee to visit the farm for the unemployed at Cleveland, the Industrial House of Correction in Chicago and the Federal Penitentiary at Leavenworth. After much consideration it proposed to the city to take over a farm purchased two years ago for a house of correction but now placed by the city in the committee's hands. There is an ambitious scheme including a tuberculosis sanatorium, free farm colony, compulsory farm colony, work shops, roads and no end of improvements. Industries which will make men and women more skilled wage earners will shortly be started and to round out the plan a municipal lodging house will be established in the city. Although city property, the committee and the Pardon Board will be in charge of the farm. A state free employment bureau forms one other link in this scheme which has attracted considerable attention and has been considered for adoption in San Francisco.

SCORE HOUSES LIKE HORSES

In an interesting eight-page pamphlet on Standardization of Housing Investigations, Prof. John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin calls attention to our present inability to draw intelligent comparisons between rents and housing conditions in various cities, since we have no standard units on which to base them. He says:

I had read that Glasgow was the most densely crowded of modern cities, because fourteen per cent of the families lived in one room. After visiting one of the model tenements of the London County Council, I was asked by a Glasgow mechanic to look into his ancient rookery. The one room in which he and his family lived seemed to be larger than the three-room apartment of his fellow who enjoyed the municipal socialism of modern London. The difference was that he put up his own flimsy partitions, while paternal London got the credit of relieving congestion by merely erecting permanent partitions.

Since there are many complicated factors in the housing problem no simple units of comparison are available. To meet this difficulty Professor Commons proposes that investigators adopt a score card similar to that used by the agriculture department in grading their products. On these cards each of the various factors determining excellence in the product is assigned a numerical weight. For example, a perfect horse is represented by 100 points, subdivided into thirty-six specifications such as weight, form, shape of head, etc. The "scorer" goes over the horse, noting in detail all the points specified, and marks down opposite each his judgment of the degree to which the animal before him is deficient. The total of all deficiency is then deducted from 100 and the result is the grade of the animal scored.

Professor Commons has drawn up a tentative card of this sort for housing investigations, into two parts, dwelling and occupants, to each of which 100 points are assigned. The points are subdivided as follows:

DWELLING.	
Location	18
Congestion of buildings	26
Window openings	11

Air and ventilation	18
Structural	6
House appurtenances (sanitary)	26

OCCUPANTS.

Congestion	61
Condition of air and ventilation	18
Cleanliness	21

Under these are various subdivisions to each of which a limited number of points are assigned, with careful instructions as to what constitute deficiencies. When two houses are thus scored we are in a position to compare their rents, correcting the nominal rent by the score. For example, if two houses each rent for one dollar a month per 100 square feet, if the actual score of one is eighty and the other fifty, the real rent of one is \$1.25 and the other two dollars, compared with a real rent of one dollar for a perfect house.

It may be questioned, of course, whether we yet know enough of the relative importance of various factors in housing to be able to assign the correct proportion of weight to the different points. Is congestion of buildings more than twice as detrimental to the families as inadequate window openings in the rooms value? Our very ignorance of these points, however, shows the need of detailed comparative studies from which to answer these questions. Professor Commons admits that this is merely a tentative proposition, but he is undoubtedly offering a suggestive plan and the discussion it arouses will surely help emphasize the necessity for securing comparable facts before attempting to make comparisons.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

John B. Andrews has assumed his duties as executive secretary of the American Association of Labor Legislation under favorable circumstances and there is every reason to expect that his administration of affairs will mark a new era of growth and influence for the organization.

The plans which Dr. Andrews will take up include enlargement of the association's widespread membership, and a



JOHN B. ANDREWS.

consequent increase in its support. State branches will be formed throughout the country to deal with local problems. Agitation to promote industrial hygiene will be continued. Special investigations into the extent of certain occupational diseases are already under way, and the results will be published as part of the plan to promote co-operation and uniformity of action among public and private agencies interested in social research and labor legislation.

At a preliminary meeting held in Boston May 14, it was decided to form a New England Branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation to deal more particularly with local conditions. Among those most actively interested are Louis D. Brandeis, Robert A. Woods of South End House, Acting Secretary McPherson of the Civic Federation, Prof. Henry C. Metcalf of Tufts College, Edward A. Filene, Prof. Henry W. Farnam of New Haven, Dennis Driscoll, secretary of the Massachusetts State Federation of Labor, and Charles F. Gettemy, commissioner of labor statistics of Massachusetts.

Dr. Andrews was born on a farm in Lafayette county, Wis. He received his early education in the country schools of that state, prepared for college at an academy in Warren, Ill., and was graduated from the University of Wisconsin in 1904. His bachelor's thesis was a study of employers' associations. During 1904-5 he was assistant in political economy at Dartmouth College, N. H., from which institution he received the degree of master of arts. His thesis was a study of the boycott in labor disputes. During two years he was honorary fellow, and one year assistant in political economy at the University of Wisconsin, which gave him the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1908. His doctor's dissertation was a study of the labor movement in America from the beginning of the Civil War to the panic of 1873.

Mr. Andrews's interest in the labor problem led him, in 1905, to form a connection with the American Bureau of Industrial Research as one of three collaborators in the preparation of a Documentary History of American Industrial Society which is announced to appear this year in ten large volumes. His latest contribution to the literature of the labor question is a History of Organization among Working Women, prepared as a part of the investigation of women's work, for the United States Bureau of Labor. In gathering material Mr. Andrews has hunted the country over and formed a wide acquaintance with the most active men among both employers and workmen. The personal connections thus formed and the experience acquired will be invaluable to him in his new work.

THREE SETTLEMENTS UNITE IN BROOKLYN

Asacog House, the Italian Settlement, and Maxwell House, three settlements within a few blocks of one another in Brooklyn, have decided to combine their work and resources as the Neighborhood Guild. A new house capable of filling existing needs will be built, and such centers as the present Maxwell House and the Asacog Boys Club will be retained. There will be a headworker of experience and ability; and assistants who will carry

on broad constructive and progressive work.

When organizations are willing to sacrifice their identities for the sake of increasing their influence, the ideals of unselfish co-operation are realized. Unhappily co-operation too often is interpreted as a means of asserting the will of the strong without reference to the opinions of the weak. This merger of Brooklyn settlements is, on the contrary, an example of that altruism which sinks all claims to individual reputation or personal glory in one large movement for neighborhood betterment. It is interesting to note that the union idea occurred to members of the three settlements with a simultaneous originality that later proved one of the best arguments for its adoption. Then the fact that one of the organizations had outgrown its plant, made the moment especially favorable for the change.

In February a man interested in all forms of social work, but not identified with any of the settlements in question, called a meeting of the various boards. The merger was proposed and objections to it invited. There was none; indeed it was plainly demonstrated that work was overlapping and duplicating, that what was everyone's business was no one's, in fact that combination would mean conservation of energy and some financial gain. This latter consideration was not important, however, as the desire was to do efficient work rather than to save. Three members of each settlement with a representative from Bliss Kindergarten were constituted a committee on arrangements, of which the man who had called the meeting was made temporary chairman.

It was, of course, necessary to get the settlement trustees to endorse the new body and join it. The committee drew up resolutions which have been ratified by all the boards and by two settlement associations. The third will undoubtedly take similar action. It has been decided to add others interested in Brooklyn's philanthropies to the temporary committee, which will make a permanent body of fifteen and ensure the greatest possible efficiency.

By this merger of three active associations it is hoped to give the community better service without wasteful duplication of effort and with a proportional financial gain. The new building with its increased educational and recreational facilities will attract more patrons, extend the settlement's influence and correspondingly benefit the entire neighborhood. The promoters of the union feel that it has no drawbacks.

"BUDGET DAY"

IN NEW YORK CITY

May 23 will be "budget day" in New York city churches. The 1910 budget will be practically decided in July of this year and the clergymen of the city are taking hold with a will to help carry out the social service measures advocated by the Bureau of Municipal Research. "Budget day" was announced after a conference of clergymen called by the bureau. The movement is strictly a non-partisan, educational effort to promote the health and education of the community. Back of it is a committee of twenty ministers representing ten denominations, acting in conjunction with the Bureau of Municipal Research. Literature describing the opportunity a "budget day" will afford will be sent on application to the bureau at 261 Broadway.

APPROPRIATION FOR LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

Among the new state institutions in New York whose progress is threatened by the reported insufficiency of revenues to meet current needs, is Letchworth Village. The multiplication of feeble-minded and epileptic persons through lack of custodial care is a dire menace to New York state where live some 20,000 of these defectives, of whom only about 3,500 are in state institutions.

The great site of 2,000 acres near Haverstraw, to which title has been taken by William R. Stewart, Franklin B. Kirkbride and Alexander C. Proudfit, the Commission to Select a Site for the Eastern New York State Custodial Asylum,

awaits its occupants, and for lack of occupation will deteriorate and be a source of increased expense. The act for its organization under the appropriate new name of Letchworth Village has been passed by the Legislature and will be duly signed, it is to be hoped, by Governor Hughes.

The recent report of the commission won an emergency message from the governor and a unanimous vote by the Legislature for the appropriation of \$80,000, the minimum amount requisite to start properly the work of preparation. This appropriation is now in danger.

If current revenues do not supply funds adequate to prepare and maintain this indispensable addition to New York's equipment for the custodial care of its defectives, we urge that the responsible financial authorities of the state will frame, and press the passage of, measures to yield such funds, and we are confident that the people of the state will recognize the emergent need of this new institution when they are made to realize the insufficient character of existing custodial care with its dangers for the present and future.

DR. SMITH ON THE INSTITUTIONS

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Fort Wayne, Ind.

The leaders in the education of the feeble-minded—Seguin, Wilbur, Knight and others, began with the enthusiasm generated by a great, new human conception, and devoted themselves utterly to the task of making men and women out of human waste material. After the first few years they found that there was a limit to the possibility of the work; that the imbeciles capable of being raised to the stature of a man were but few; that while a great many might be made capable of much happiness and of entire self-support under direction, only a small minority might safely be restored to society as self-controlling citizens with a citizen's full duty, including a share in the parentage of the next

generation. The effect of this conviction, now general among the trainers of the feeble-minded, has been not to decrease but to qualify their enthusiasm for education and to create a veritable passion for segregation and complete custodial care of the whole class.

A parallel change of emphasis has been seen in the case of the insane. When science and humanity replaced ignorance and cruelty in the insane asylums, the new methods had such splendid results that the hope of curing a large majority of the insane became the inspiration of the alienists. But as experience with scientific treatment has shown that, even under favorable conditions, the percentage of recoveries has remained stationary, or has even, apparently, diminished, it is only natural that even the most devoted physicians think as much about the comfort and happiness of those of their patients who are not recoverable as of the cure of the smaller number, who are. Meanwhile at both ends of the procession increased efforts are being made. The general attention to psychopathic hospitals and early treatment at one end, of the line and to industrial re-education and colony care at the other, are equally proofs of progress.

Dr. Stephen Smith¹ points out the results of the changing emphasis which he deplures, and declares that we are giving less and less attention to cure and restoration to society, not only of the insane and imbecile, but also of the criminals in reformatories. He asserts that the requests for money of those who have these classes in charge, are constantly to provide more and larger custodial buildings rather than for better equipment and more highly skilled, and therefore better paid, workers.

It is true enough that emphasis laid on any one factor of a many-factored problem, tends to comparative neglect of other factors, but we cannot admit that Dr. Smith's criticism although it may be

pertinent to the treatment of the insane in some places, applies in any large measure to modern methods in reformatories as training schools for the feeble-minded. All he says about scientific study, of brain and nerve development and, especially, of the necessity of individualizing treatment, is emphatically true. Nowhere more than in a reformatory, a school for imbeciles or a colony of epileptics, does the "case method," carried out to its ultimate, apply. It is difficult to imagine, however, where Dr. Smith finds the institutions of which he can say: "It is painfully evident to an intelligent visitor to institutions for the care, treatment or education of those suffering from idiocy, insanity, epilepsy or other affections of the nervous system, that there is too often wanting on the part of physicians and caretakers alike, that genuine enthusiasm in their work which insures the highest degree of success. The vast variety of symptoms which these diseases present for study attract but little attention because the brain is a sealed book. *All of the inmates are placed on a dead level, and the treatment, instead of being individual is en masse*" (the italics are ours).

Dr. Smith's pamphlet, though marred by over-statements like the above, is valuable and deserves study by everyone having to do with the feeble-minded, the insane or the epileptic. It is true that the standards of personal qualifications, general education and scientific training required of our nurses, attendants and caretakers, are rarely as high as we would like them to be and are, in some instances, deplorably low. It is true that salaries should be raised all along the line and that to increase them, if we secured what we paid for, would mean true economy to the state. Meanwhile we invite Dr. Smith to visit Elmira and Mansfield, Bedford and Lancaster, Elwyn, Vineland and Waverly, Sonyea and Center Islip and any of dozens of modern institutions, which this pamphlet would lead us to believe he has never inspected with a sympathetic eye.

¹In a paper on The Physiological Significance of That First Lesson, read before the Association for the Study of the Feeble-Minded, and printed in pamphlet form.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF FAMILY LIFE

ANNIE L. CHESLEY

SECRETARY FIRST PARISH PAINE FUND, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

The family is the oldest institution in the world. Its history, its evolution from prehistoric times, is a most interesting study. It is the unit of civilization—the primary and most enduring group. We have reason to believe that it is through the development of the highest characteristics in families that God is working towards the ultimate fulfilment of His divine purpose for humanity—working toward that time when love and truth and justice shall rule the world. If we study the career of any family known through history, or even through personal experience, we find that its members have grown in power and influence only in so far as they have lived righteously, that is, have governed their lives by the dominant motives of truth and justice. The majority of those who have made a lasting impression for good upon their time have come from homes where there was often little of this world's goods; but where the power of discerning and doing right, in other words the sense of duty, was strong. How slight is the impression made by great wealth when it is used for selfish ends! How certain is the law by which such families deteriorate from generation to generation! On the other hand how true it is that the finest elements in our modern civilization are to be found in those families who, by sturdy integrity, self-denial and self-control, have held and used their wealth for the highest good of all. Their names and lives are interwoven in all those laws and institutions which have been established for the betterment of the social order.

In these modern days the sanctity and preservation of the common family life are seriously threatened. The spirit of selfish egoism is strongly manifested. The desire to be able to stand alone is a great present evil because it is contrary to the true spirit of brotherhood. Selfishness is the primal sin—is still the deep-

est sin—because its essence is separateness.

Then too so many live under economic conditions tending to make the mere struggle for existence consume all the energy and vitality of mind and body. Little room is left in the consciousness for deep concern or affectionate interest for anything or anybody aside from the immediate needs of the present personal life. Hopelessness regarding the future, if physical strength fails, is always in the mental background. Poverty, bad environment, the hard struggle for existence, are a perpetual menace to the development of the moral and intellectual nature. The inborn tendencies toward right living, family affection, civic duty, have little opportunity, under such conditions, to grow and expand. In the midst of this complex social situation, the idea of the family as a unit, has, in many instances, almost ceased to exist. When we try to draw together and unite the scattered forces, we are met with serious obstacles. Selfishness, indifference, even hatred, are found, because of the different characteristics and lack of unity of purpose, even in a single group. We have been told again and again that the true test of relief work, as indeed of all economic and philanthropic activity, is in its effects on the preservation of the family interest; and of the spirit of co-operation even to remote relationships. When we get beyond the point of legal responsibility, of parents for children, of children for parents and grandparents, we come to situations that admit of every variety of moral and social standards. To accomplish any real good amid all the confusion of ideas and standards we must have a broad and definite aim in view. To develop the natural resources of the family for the benefit of one of its members in distress is not the first consideration.

What then is our first real aim? Is

it not to awaken a social consciousness? Is it not, in other words, to help bring about the realization that a man cannot stand alone, that his life is of little value apart from its relation to the family and the community? Is it not to help him, so far as possible, to an apprehension of the permanent background of his life—his family, his church, his neighborhood and his place in the industrial world?

The poor have so little real self-respect. On the surface there may be a sort of arrogant self-defence, but in the depths of their hearts they feel inferior. They realize that their opportunities for self-development are very limited. They overlook, chiefly from lack of knowledge, the real intent of their lives. They do not dream of the dignity and value of fine living in their own seemingly humble sphere of life. If our work is to have any permanent educational value it must be instrumental in bringing about some such conception.

A great deal has been said concerning the dangers of pauperizing the poor by giving material aid. People, generous at heart, have sat with closed hands for fear of doing more harm than good by their charities. We admit that there are dangers—grave ones too—or they would not occupy so large a place in the social consciousness. But after all, have not these dangers been magnified? Has it not been proven over and over again, in the experience of every social worker, that a man may be helped, and yet helped in such a way as to be strengthened and encouraged to better and nobler living? If we administer our relief in the right spirit, with true sympathy, realizing the basic fact of brotherhood, with no feeling of aloofness or separateness, then our gifts need not pauperize, but, on the contrary, may help and uplift morally and socially, as well as aid materially. Therefore, does not the responsibility rest as much with those who give as with those who receive? Unless we can honor and respect the immeasurable power and greatness lying latent in every human soul, all charity may become a degradation to those who need and an equal degradation to those who give.

If we make the awakening of a social

consciousness our first aim, we would also make an optimistic attitude of mind, or a belief in the essential goodness of human nature, one of the first requisites in achieving that aim. Right here we cannot resist quoting from an editorial of Dr. Devine in *Charities and The Commons*, entitled What We Believe. He says: "We believe in men. In spite of all individual failures and incomplete lives; in spite of war and crime; in spite of suffering and disease; in spite of accident and premature death; even in spite of poverty and dependence; we believe in the inherent nobility and the latent tendency towards the good in the human soul. The failure is accidental, partial, temporary. The desire for right living and rational conduct is universal, natural, and in the end dominant."

Beginning with this belief in the higher and better nature of man, how do we work out practically the problem of the measure of family responsibility in concrete situations? In attempting to answer this question we are going to speak frankly, and as concisely as we can, of how the committee in charge of the First Parish Paine Fund has tried to work out the problem with an income of \$10,000 a year to spend for the benefit of the poor in Cambridge, Mass.

We know it is said that ours is a "gilt-edge charity." We are told that our experience is exceptional because we are supposed to deal chiefly with what is sometimes designated as "the better class of poor," or those who "have seen better days." Then, too, our numbers are small and so perhaps count for comparatively little beside the statistics of larger organizations. We realize that our work is limited, but nevertheless we believe that the administration of the fund has helped develop some of the finest traits of character—loyalty, self-sacrifice and self-control. Dealing with few people has given us the time for personal, continuous and co-operative work in every situation where such work seemed needed. We do, it is true, come in touch with many standards of living, and we sometimes find more to overcome in connection with the higher than with the lower. It is much more

difficult to persuade people to lead a simpler life than it is to raise the standard of living. The poor, who have always been poor, expect very little. If studied rightly and dealt with frankly they are not very easily pauperized. On the other hand, in dealing with those who take the best as their natural right and who are self-centered enough to consider themselves a special class, we find it is not easy to have them face squarely their own needs in relation to the needs of others. Neither is it an easy matter, from all the habits acquired through generations of good social environment, to retain only those that are really necessary to good and wholesome living.

Since May, 1905, we have dealt with about 300 situations. This number does not include many cases about which we have been consulted, but refers only to accepted applications. The majority of our situations need continuous care. In thirty-two cases the applicants were shown how they could still depend on their own and family resources without outside aid. Others were left to their relatives and churches; others again, a limited number, to whatever resources in the community had previously met their need. In seventy-six cases relatives have pledged definite, and generally continuous, financial help, amounting to \$2,642.

It has been said that we are able to procure assistance from relatives because our applicants have relatives who are able to help them financially. The fact is that those whose families have been people of more or less influence in the past have few or no relatives. In many instances they are the last of their race. The aid from relatives has, therefore, in almost every case, come from those who had to make real sacrifices in order to help.

Before the relatives of any applicant are approached at all we need to have a very thorough understanding of our situation—that is, as thorough a knowledge of it as is possible. Moreover, we need not only the story of the applicant but his point of view.

We want to say here what may be considered as a heresy, namely, that we have found that the best place to obtain this knowledge has been in the privacy and

seclusion of the little room in the Parish House which the committee uses for an office. Of course, applicants are seen in their homes, often many times, but people are much more self-conscious in their homes, especially if we go as strangers and our visit is unexpected. In the majority of homes we are never free from interruptions from children or neighbors, and we can never be quite sure that there is not someone in the next room listening to all we say.

In some respects this same reasoning holds good regarding interviews with relatives. For instance, take a situation where it is necessary to see a married brother. If we have time to write and make an appointment at a convenient hour for him in his home, when he can be at liberty to talk with us, and has had an opportunity to put on necktie or coat or any other accessory helping to give him social ease, then all is well. We then have the advantage of seeing the home surroundings and are better able to judge the social status. But again, if we send to a man a brief business note, respectfully and courteously asking him to call at a certain time, or to let us know when he can most conveniently call, he comes as he would to a lawyer's or a doctor's office. It places the whole situation on a dignified, serious, basis. In some cases different relatives of the applicant have come together to our office. It is well sometimes to have a little committee meeting of relatives and others most concerned in an individual problem. We have dwelt on this point because we wish to emphasize the fact that it is well worth while to give time and thought to planning for conditions either in the home or office that will help us naturally to gain confidence and develop self-respect.

On general principles, to visit the poor at meal time or when we are certain of finding household confusion, is not treating them with sufficient courtesy. Consideration for them in this regard is one of the ways of developing self-respect.

Before seeing relatives it is necessary to have the best possible plan in our own mind for meeting the situation. This plan, however, had better be kept wholly

in the background until we find out what their advice and suggestion are.

At one time we had under our care two sisters who needed entire support. They had two brothers. They relied on the willingness of one to do what he could—the other, they said, was absolutely indifferent to their welfare. The former came to see us and did agree to help to the extent of his ability, but in reference to his brother, said: "It is useless to consult him. Our father and mother were left without means in their old age. After their death there were the doctor's bills and funeral expenses to meet and he never offered to give a cent and I would not ask him. He has not been to see his sisters for years." Nevertheless we made an appointment to see this brother and asked his opinion about the best plans to be made for his sisters, and what he thought he could contribute toward carrying them out. Toward the end of our interview, he said in substance this: "No, I can't make plans for those girls; they would not accept them if I did. I am sixty-five years old and this is the first time in my life that I was ever consulted about family affairs. Why, my father and mother had long illnesses and were buried and I was never asked about anything; my brother assumed full control. But now I will give you what I can, if you succeed in persuading my sisters to accept the plan you have suggested." We did not leave him until he had promised to visit his sisters, which he did in a short time; and now for two years he has seen them frequently. This last winter the comparatively successful brother lost his position and could no longer help. The other brother has come to the front nobly, and of his own accord is dividing what little he can give between the two situations. The committee is giving more—but what of that? The various members of that family are bearing their mutual burdens together, and are supporting each other through really serious difficulties by their common sympathy and understanding.

Again, it seems wise not to try to influence the decision of relatives. This does not mean that we may not go over the whole situation with them, viewing it

from the moral, social and practical standpoints; but that the final decision must be the result of their own best judgment—not ours.

For a continuance of material relief we cannot trust the easily aroused emotions, the first generous impulse. We must strive to develop the capacity for wise, continuous and clear-sighted action based on the law of duty—based on an understanding of our common humanity.

We have to remember, too, that the poor give freely of whatever they have, because they have had so little opportunity to save that they have never learned economy. As it is our duty to have in mind the best interests of the whole family group, we are sometimes called upon to restrain the first impulsive action and have the relative carefully consider what the effect of his giving will be on his own immediate family, which has a right to his first consideration. Perhaps, if he should not give financial aid he can be led to see that the high and just demand of our common life is to stand together, shoulder to shoulder, helping with sympathy and moral support when the other and less valuable aid is impossible.

Illustrations could be given representing almost every kind of co-operation with relatives both in near and remote relationships. It is a side of our work that grows in responsibility each year, as we realize the opportunities it affords for both preventive and constructive work. At the same time there is no other side that yields so much inspiration.

The following illustration has been selected to show, not financial co-operation alone, but how four relatives with distinctly different mental attitudes toward the same situation, decided to work together for the common good of all. We will give only sufficient detail to show the problem.

Our committee was asked to help an elderly woman who had long been a resident of Cambridge. She had no income and was reported as living with a married daughter, whose husband had deserted, leaving her with four children under twelve years of age. The daughter's earnings, about \$3.50 a week, comprised the entire income for a family of six. To

arrange for the care of the mother by developing her resources and perhaps adding a small amount from the Paine Fund would have been comparatively easy. But it seemed clearly the mother's duty to remain with her daughter, as in no other way could the latter go out to work and the family be kept together. The daughter, Mrs. X, had recently come to Cambridge and was not eligible for help from our fund. In studying the situation we found that the mother was a respectable woman with good moral standards, but we also discovered that the daughter, Mrs. X, had never been legally married to the father of her children, and his desertion had long been expected. This was not known outside of the immediate families. The father of the children was an only child and his parents were living. Mrs. X had a married sister and a married and a single brother. She herself was a weak woman whose strongest characteristic was her love for her children. She had little or no realization of her own wrongdoing, or the terrible burden of care and shame she had brought into the lives of others.

We wrote twice to the grandfather of those children, trying to arrange an interview at his convenience, but received no replies. We wrote to the single brother twice with the same result. The married brother worked at night. We wrote him we would call on a certain afternoon at four o'clock. He then would have had his usual amount of sleep and be ready to see us. We found him a kindly, easy-going man with no very decided opinions. After considering the facts he thought it wise for his sister to keep the children together and for his mother to remain with them. His own financial situation was straightened. He had five children—a son, who was a widower with one child, living at home and out of work; two other sons of working age, also out of work; one girl at work and another in school. The family was held together by his small wages and what the daughter earned. He was in debt for rent and other necessities. He was willing to give his mother a home, or would contribute toward her support, and thus

help his sister too. We had to show him why, under the circumstances, he was not justified in helping others. He agreed to wait until the income of the family was larger and then do what he could.

On visiting the married sister we found that the income of her husband was sufficient only for the support of the immediate family. Again no financial aid was promised. In the sister, however, we found a strong moral character with a keen appreciation of all the difficult elements in the situation, and a realization of her duty to stand by her weaker sister and the children. Because of the lack of family resources she had urged that the children be placed in homes. She readily accepted the other plan, however, and we left her, feeling that there was at least one person on whom we could depend for the most sincere and cordial co-operation. She regretted her inability to help materially and we hope she took a little comfort from our assurance that her genuine moral interest and oversight were the indispensable elements, the real hope, of the situation. We found she was a woman very much respected in a certain circle of people among whom she had lived all her life. Her pride and self-respect were strong and she realized that at any time her sister's real story might be known. This did not deter her—her sister was her sister through good or ill repute, and that ended the matter.

We now had to see those two men who had not replied to our note. We called on the grandfather of the children one evening. He apologized at once for not writing, and when he explained in detail the way his time was occupied by his work and the care of an invalid wife, we did not wonder at the delay. With him we had to face a most delicate and difficult situation, one that took all our courage. Here was a quiet, dignified man who had always been fully competent to guide his own affairs. He had positively decided that his future course as to this family of his son was to treat them as though they were non-existent. He stated his reasons for such a course—good reasons, almost unanswerable from

one point of view. Years before he had done all he could to prevent this union. He had seen Mrs. X, as we still call her, and told her that his son had a wife from whom he had not been divorced. His efforts were fruitless. He had, too, given much financial help during the past twelve years, and now he felt he owed all he could spare to the care of his sick wife and their approaching old age. Our sympathies were with him and we told him so, although we could not quite agree with his conclusions. We led him to consider the future of the children and his responsibility regarding them. Finally, after due deliberation, he agreed to co-operate for six months by giving one dollar a week, through us, toward their support.

We also called in the evening on the single son and brother. He boarded with a woman living on the second floor of a tenement house. The family thought this woman received most of his wages. She was certainly in his confidence, for when we inquired for him through the tube she would not give any information or open the door until the name was given. Then the man came rushing downstairs exclaiming, as soon as he opened the door, "I have not answered your letters because I want nothing to do with my sister, and anyway I have been out of work, and I haven't any money to give her." We said "Good evening," and then he said, "I beg your pardon," and we began our talk on a more friendly basis, continuing the interview on the steps outside, which seemed preferable to the possibilities of the apartment upstairs. His attitude, plainly stated, was that he would not help support Mr. X's children. They might be cared for by the state or in any way the community provided for such children. We finally found ourselves discussing frankly his sister's life and character, and his own duties in relation to her. He saw that, in ways he had not realized, he had been a detrimental influence. This thought affected him more than anything else. His whole attitude changed and the result was that he promised one dollar a week and some oversight over the children, especially a

troublesome nine-year-old boy. For five months he has kept his promise.

Our next step involved an extension of the family idea. We asked a group of people who were constantly studying the best interests of children, the trustees of a home for children, if they would consider giving this mother a cash allowance so that with the other resources she might keep the family together. This they unanimously voted to do although it was the first time in the history of the institution that such a course had been taken.

Summarizing the situation, we find:

First, that the grandfather who felt his duty ended saw a further duty; second, that the brother who acknowledged no obligation to a weak sister saw that he had not helped her to be strong; third, that the married brother was deterred from his unwise self-sacrifice; fourth, that the sister came to realize that her strong moral support was of more value than financial aid; fifth, and lastly, that the trustees of the home took, as it seemed to us, a progressive step away from institutionalism.

In this work with relatives we confess to feeling at times a reluctance in awakening new obligations, because this must add duties to already burdened lives. Our committee realizes this side of the situation and frequently says to a relative: "If you will do whatever you think is right—we cannot judge for you—we will do what we can to help meet the balance of what is really needed."

We hope we have shown that there is a great deal more at the bottom of this whole problem of family responsibility than just to have each family care for its own. No family can stand alone. It cannot separate its life from the common life of the community. No one of its members can rightly fulfill his family duties and not realize his larger relations.

Do we not need, too, to have ever in mind the forces of the Divine Spirit working in our world? I mean those spiritual forces and agencies which, in spite of wrong social conditions and unwholesome environment, in spite of misconceptions of life and personal evils, are always evolving men to higher and high-

er stages of growth and development. These spiritual forces are mightier far than even our own conscious endeavors after the good. They co-operate with our own conscious efforts, but they do

more than this. They work silently in man, even against his own choice and purpose. By their subtle and divine alchemy they bring good even out of apparent evil.

PREPARING FOR PEACE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

When the figure and voice of the Second National Peace Congress arose out of the din and tumult of Chicago's cosmopolitan life, it reminded one of that quaint picture in Holy Writ of the coming man with "feet shod with the preparation of the Gospel of Peace." The congress faced facts, but they were the facts of the present. It had no time for retrospective denunciation, no inclination to figure out statistical arguments, no indulgence for prophecy. And yet its front was forward.

All of its speakers and hearers were intent upon one thing—present preparation for the peace that is to be. When it would come, no one ventured to predict. That it will come everyone was convinced; not because of any merely authoritative declaration of peace, divine or human, but because the conservatism of civilization is outgrowing the radicalism of war, because loyalty to law is becoming intolerant of the anarchism of violence, because political economy repudiates the wastefulness of destruction, because capital is cosmopolitan and labor is international, because the people who are for peace are greater than the politicians and exploiters who are for war.

These peace people have had their ears closer to the ground than those who call them dreamers. They have heard not only "the cry of the human foundation," which Lowell re-echoes as it groans beneath the weight of every superstructure reared by man's inhumanity to man, through the blasphemy of the name of patriotism or religion. They have been measuring also the forces of human intelligence, and reckoning the facts of sanity and sense in the race. They discern

peace in "the signs of the times," far beneath everything to the contrary in the appropriations for armies and navies, in the building of "Dreadnoughts," and in the exploitation of the war-lords. And so the congress did not hesitate to resolve "that public war is now out of date, a relic of barbarism unworthy of our time, and that the nations of the world by joint agreement, a league of peace among themselves, ought to make its recurrence impossible."

In their talk the members were matter-of-fact, in temper reasonable, in method scientific, and lofty in spirit withal. They grappled with facts and situations as they are and blinked none of them. They discussed them frankly and fearlessly as investigators, legislators, diplomats, students of international law, members of congress and the cabinet, men and women of affairs. Their reliance was upon the tendencies which men involuntarily promote, and to which they unconsciously yield, as well as upon deliberate and purposed effort. The pull of blind forces, economic, social, racial, cosmic, was recognized as frankly as the influence of education, ethics and religion. And these moral, legislative, co-operative efforts, to promote which the congress convened, were all the more emphasized, marshalled and put to work because considered only supplemental to the stronger, more persistent, irresistible, evolutionary forces and tendencies, which like "the stars in their courses," slowly but surely are working out the reign of righteousness, peace and joy.

The peace for which the plea and plan of this congress were made, is no mere negation, only the cessation of strife; it

stands for international justice and law and nothing less than the organization of the world's life.

Some suggestion of the affirmative, constructive, practical ideas advanced in this brilliant program, may be gleaned from the topics of the speakers which are announced with their names in the symposium which they personally contributed to the pages of *THE SURVEY*. Something of the virility and versatility of thought and spirit which characterized the occasion may be sensed in the estimate of its significance with which some of its best and busiest participants favor the readers of *THE SURVEY*.

In the deeds which immediately followed the conclusion of the congress its note of significance was struck as definitely and clearly as by any of the greatest words spoken during its progress. The gift of \$25,000 to Northwestern University by John R. Lindgren, long a well-known citizen of Chicago, who has been the worthy consul of Sweden, practically provides for the preparation for peace, for which the whole program progressively planned. The income of this fund is to be used for the promotion of international peace and Christian unity in holding annual conferences to be addressed by some distinguished advocate of peace, in offering prizes for essays, and in correspondence with other universities in the furtherance of the common cause. Chicago's citizens also firmly established a new local branch of the American Peace Society by making it possible to locate the office of an able field secretary in the city. Thus the indomitable citizenship whose motto is "I will," has not only had its will lifted toward higher and broader ideals, but has added to the movement for peace more of the will that surely finds a way.

It is a pleasure to present to our readers the following contributions especially prepared for *THE SURVEY* by some of the most distinguished representatives of the Peace Movement in attendance upon the Second National Peace Congress held at Chicago May 3-5. Their official positions and the topics of the papers which they read at the congress are so significant of its scope and effectiveness that

we add them to the announcement of their names.

EDWIN D. MEAD
BOSTON

The Arrest in Competitive Arming in Fidelity to the Hague Movement

The Chicago Peace Congress gained distinctly in interest through the fact that the month of its meeting was the tenth anniversary of the opening of the first Hague conference. That conference met May 18, 1899; and the people who gathered in Chicago were in position to note the immense gains which the cause of international justice and organization had made during the decade. It was said more than once that if we had been told ten years ago that we should see to-day an international tribunal, an international prize court, a regular international parliament practically assured, and eighty arbitration treaties ratified between different pairs of nations, we could not have believed it; yet that is what we see in May, 1909—and it is a wonderful record of progress which was warmly recognized at Chicago.

The Chicago congress met also on the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Lincoln, and in the city where he was nominated for the presidency. His nomination and election marked a similar advance in the anti-slavery cause which the progress of the last ten years has marked in the peace cause. The course of the latter during the last decade has been much like that of the former during the decade between 1850 and 1860. The anti-slavery movement had been for two generations a great moral crusade; but, because the evil which it confronted was so great, it was inevitable that it should pass into politics; and with the election of Lincoln, slavery was doomed. The peace cause has been for more than two generations a great moral crusade; but in the last ten years, precisely because the evil which it confronts is so great, it has become a political movement—and its most influential agency to-day is not the group of peace societies, but the great Inter-parliamentary Union made up of 2,500 statesmen belonging to the parliaments of all nations, 240 in our American Congress alone, all co-operating in behalf of those measures which tend to supplant the system of war by the system of law.

This wonderful change and advance in the peace movement was evidenced in the Chicago congress in a noteworthy degree. The speeches and discussions of the congress gave little time to the momentous work which is going on for the political reorganization of the nations. The achievements of the Hague conference and consideration of the further work to be done at the next conference were the things emphasized. The resolutions repeated the strong demands made in

speech after speech, that the scope of all treaties or arbitration should be so broadened as to refer to the Hague court all differences whatever not settled by regular diplomatic negotiation; and that the nations which are parties to the Hague conventions should prove their earnestness and mutual trust by limiting their armaments and preparing for their gradual reduction as the instrumentalities for the judicial settlement of disputes are increased and perfected.

It was the united testimony of those who have attended many Peace Congresses that there was never a congress where all the utterances were braver or more definite. There was profound satisfaction with the speeches of Secretary Ballinger, representing the administration at Washington. The words of the foreign diplomats were all sensible, fraternal and progressive. The congress marked a distinct advance in the international movement in America.

It marked a special advance in the position of Chicago in connection with this commanding cause. Boston and Philadelphia have long been great centers of the movement; the Mohonk conferences have, for fifteen years, performed almost the function of national congresses for the United States; and in the last few years New York has come to the front in the movement in a noteworthy degree. There has never been a strong peace organization in Chicago, and there have never been very important peace meetings there, save only the congress of 1893. But Chicago has now responded in a most impressive manner. The attendance upon the meetings of the congress was very large, the speaking was of a high order, the enthusiasm was magnificent; and the local co-operation was such as makes it certain that from now on Chicago will be one of the influential centers of the movement. Nearly two hundred new members joined the American Peace Society during the three days of the congress. It was voted enthusiastically that the field secretary of the American Peace Society be invited to make Chicago, instead of Boston, his headquarters; and a large committee of the leading people of Chicago was created to organize a branch society in their city. The backing given the congress by the Chicago Association of Commerce and other business organizations was remarkably generous and many of the leaders of Chicago's business life had prominent places upon the program. It is indeed but right to say that the commercial organizations, and this not alone in a financial way, gave more impressive expression of their interest than the churches themselves. Several of the churches organized meetings; but the remarkable expression of religious interest shown in connection with the Boston and New York Congresses was not evidenced at Chicago. This, however, it may fairly be hoped, was more or less accidental. When the new Chicago Peace Society is well organized, the churches are sure to co-operate with it in proper measure; for indeed the

peace movement is little else than the effort, after the long and selfish centuries, to put the principles of religion into world politics.

RICHARD BARTHOLDT

10th DISTRICT, MO., PRES. OF AM. GROUP
PARLIAMENTARY UNION

Next Steps in Peacemaking

Goethe says that man is but an animal with a soul. If this be true, the war party appeals to the animal in man, while the peace party appeals to the soul in man. This latter fact was again demonstrated by the Chicago Peace Congress and the speeches that have been made both by American speakers and the representatives of foreign nations. The object of such congresses is to diffuse knowledge on the progress of the peace movement, and they are necessary because the press fails to record such progress. All the speeches should be printed in book form and distributed throughout the length and breadth of the country in order that a healthy public opinion may be created against any further deviation from American traditions and ideals and in favor of the substitution of judicial decisions for war, and of law and order for the arbitrary power, force and anarchy such as now prevail in international relations. It is needless to add that the congress will redound to the lasting honor of the city of Chicago and of the men who were instrumental in bringing it about.

M. K. MATSUBARA

JAPANESE CONSUL IN CHICAGO

I believe that such a noble effort as that of the peace congress will do much in educating the people in the noble movement of promoting international peace step by step.

WILLIAM I. HULL

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, SECRETARY OF
UNITED STATES COMMISSION ON THE LIM-
ITATION OF ARMAMENTS

Advances Registered by the Five Hague Conferences

The significance of the present congress lies in the fact that it has emphasized not so much a condemnation of warfare in the abstract or warfare in the past as the positive means for the prevention of warfare in the future.

The congress has of course emphasized most powerfully the moral and spiritual, the industrial and commercial, the educational and what President Jordan calls the biological forces making towards international peace and justice. But having held up in the clear light of publicity these great twentieth century forces, it has also emphasized the fact that there have been sought and found, and already to some extent, applied constitutional and legal methods of settling international disputes and securing international justice by peaceful means.

In this way the congress has attempted to focus all the world, forces making towards peace, and to harness them within the machinery of the international institutions agreed upon at The Hague, so that there may be secured positive and speedy results.

SAMUEL GOMPERS

PRESIDENT AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR

The labor unions are the friends of peace and are the supporters and maintainers of peace. They have lent their support to the establishment of international peace and always have been working to that end.

The labor union is the pioneer among those who would do away with war and the unions have been with the movement ever since the organization of the first American labor union in Massachusetts in 1807. The executive council of the American Federation met two weeks ago and one of the things agreed upon was that the federation favors the promotion of international peace and the disarmament of the national armies and navies.

DR. EMIL G. HIRSCH

SINAI TEMPLE, CHICAGO

The significance of the Peace Congress for me lay in the unanimity of sentiment and conviction which found expression in all the addresses alike, that the way has been found to proceed in the adjudicating of the disputes between nations along the lines and by the methods now everywhere in vogue in nations that claim to be civilized for the adjudicating of the differences among individuals. The hopeful and insistent emphasis laid on the now enlarging functions of The Hague International Tribunal, soon to be a permanent court of arbitration, and of obligatory arbitration at that, seems to me to have been the dominant note of the congress. That this congress, like its predecessor of two years ago, illustrated the potency of an idea as a force for bringing together men regardless of the accident of birth, creed, condition, race or social position and vocation was another significant demonstration. Commerce and industry, law and theology, labor and leisure, masculinity and femininity alike spoke from the platform and echoed essentially the one faith. Thus the desire for international justice flowered forth in inter-racial and inter-religious and inter-professional co-operation and confidence.

DAVID STARR JORDAN

LELAND STANFORD, JR. UNIVERSITY, CAL.

The Biology of War

The Peace Congress seems to me to have been eminently satisfactory. The spirit was excellent, the purpose unanimous and the delegates were received most hospitably by

the people of Chicago. I approve fully of the resolutions adopted. They avoid side questions and disputed matters and strike at the most essential points, the cessation of rival armament, and the appointment of a peace commission by President Taft—a commission strong enough to investigate and influential enough to carry weight for American ideas at the next Hague conference.

MRS. CHARLES HENROTIN

CHAIRMAN WOMAN'S SESSION ON WOMAN'S WORK FOR PEACE

The Economic Loss of War

The special significance of the peace congress to me was the new note of protest sounded in the meeting of women's organizations, against the economic loss to civilization of war. This meeting was the most enthusiastic of all the meetings and beyond doubt the one in which the practical issues of war were most emphasized. At the next National Peace Congress the chairman would suggest that the largest hall be reserved for the women's meetings. Every speaker emphasized the interdependence of the women of all lands and of all classes who must bear to a great extent the economic burdens of war and standing armies in time of peace. In those countries where large navies and standing armies are kept up the women are obliged to carry an undue share of the industrial burden. One speaker stated that it is estimated that the work of German women pays for the entire civil list. Miss McDowell spoke of the effect of large standing armies on the foreign population of the United States, especially as evinced in the large number of young girls who come over the seas, alone and unprotected, following the young men who flock here to escape military service. The effect of militarism in lowering the birth rate—especially in France, where the women are too intelligent to bear sons as food for garrison life or war's destruction; even in Germany under military conditions the birth rate is falling. When women commence to count the social loss of war in figures and in death, war will cease, and the woman's meeting at this congress sounded that note.

HAMILTON HOLT

MANAGING EDITOR THE INDEPENDENT, NEW YORK CITY

The first National Peace and Arbitration Congress of the United States was held in New York two years ago, a month before the assembling of the second Hague conference. The main efforts of its speakers and the purpose of its resolutions were naturally turned towards The Hague, and President Roosevelt wrote a letter to be read before it in which he said that one new battleship a year was all that was necessary to keep our navy efficient and our fleet sufficient for our needs.

After the second Hague conference was over, however, and the question of the limitation of armament was referred back to the government for a further and more profound study, Mr. Roosevelt came out for "four new Dreadnoughts" a year for our navy. This new cry for a greater navy has been taken up with enthusiasm by the Navy League, the armament factories and every incipient "fighting Bob" who hopes some day to command another American armada on its voyage round the world. Even a so-called Peace League has been established for the paradoxical purpose of increasing our navy. This had become therefore the issue before the country and the world when the second American Peace and Arbitration Congress was held in Chicago. Fortunately the congress voiced its protest in no unequivocal voice against this mad rivalry on the part of the nations for the increase in armaments, and its voice will undoubtedly reach the ear of President Taft whose judicial training and temperament are quick to report any constructive proposal that attempts to substitute law for war. The most important practical suggestion in the resolutions is that asking the president to appoint a commission of eminent men to study the whole question of the limitation of armaments. If Mr. Taft will make this commission consist of army and navy officers, a peace advocate, an international lawyer, an historian and several statesmen and publicists, its findings can hardly fail to furnish a basis for the action of our delegates at the third Hague conference in 1915.

The Chicago conference was particularly happy in the choice of its speakers, most of whom have now come to see that Tennyson's dream of "Parliament of Man and the Federation of the World" is likely to become a reality through the development of The Hague court which is the germ of the supreme court of the world and the recurring Hague conferences which are the germ of the international legislatures.

The Chicago conference was a notable milestone on the peace movement and its debates and resolutions will be consulted and referred to for many years to come by peace workers all over the world.

A. M. SIMONS

EDITOR, CHICAGO DAILY SOCIALIST

The Peace Congress did a very real service in pointing out the terrible growth of militarism and the weight of the military burden. It seemed to me, however, that its main strength lay on the critical, destructive side, and that there was a lack of a definite constructive position.

I am perhaps guilty of this same weakness in so criticising the congress, but I could not but feel that there was too much of a tendency to seek the aid of those who profit by war, and even of those directly concerned in military matters. Sooner or later the sincere believers in universal peace,

such as make up the really active workers in the National Peace Society will find that they have come to a parting of the ways, where the effort to secure co-operation of government officials, diplomats, army officers and the great financial interests must be surrendered and a definite and more aggressive policy adopted.

Any such policy if it is to be effective, must be based upon at least close co-operation with the great masses of organized labor. With labor the question of peace is not one of sentiment but of life and death, and it is therefore the natural foundation of any effective movement against militarism.

GEORGE E. ROBERTS

PRES. COMMERCIAL NAT. BANK OF CHICAGO.
CHAIRMAN OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY
SESSION

I think the most significant feature of the Peace Congress was the showing of progress made by the movement since the first Hague conference was held. All of the addresses which carried authority agreed in this, and the congress was worth holding to have these gains thus clearly summed up. It was shown that the field of possible disagreement between nations had been greatly narrowed, and Mr. Buchanan indicated that the establishment of a permanent court only failed by reason of the difficulty attending the organization of such a body for forty-two nations without having it unduly large. It is not too much to say that if The Hague tribunal had had the standing in 1898 that it has now, with the example of the settlement of the Dogger Bank incident through its offices established, our war with Spain might have been averted.

Another significant feature was the universal character of the participation. Experienced diplomats, authorized representatives of chambers of commerce and labor organizations, twelve college presidents, economists, students of international law, delegates from all parts of the country and of all nationalities and religions were present. This indicates that the movement has a working footing among all classes. There is no opposition to it, but the negative attitude of those who think its purposes too good to be realized.

CARL D. THOMPSON

SOCIAL-DEMOCRATIC PARTY, MILWAUKEE,
WIS.

International Socialism as a Peace Force

The most striking feature of the peace congress was the recognition given to the organized labor and socialist movement as peace forces. The fact that the resolutions offered by the labor and socialist delegates were tabled by a majority of only a very few votes was a surprise even to those who offered them. It serves to show that an in-

creasing number of people recognize that all modern wars center around the problem of foreign markets; that this in turn grows out of the exploitation of labor. It shows that the economic and industrial causes of war are being more understood, and that the tremendous power of the political organization of labor, the international socialist movement, with its 740 representatives in the parliaments of the world, its thousands of officials in lesser legislative bodies, its nine millions of voters and its countless millions of affiliated labor organizations—all openly and avowedly committed to uncompromising opposition to militarism and capitalistic wars—are beginning to be recognized as the greatest peace forces in the world.

MRS. LUCIA AMES MEAD
BOSTON, MASS.

Five Dangerous Fallacies

Though the congress was not quite the largest of the many state, national and international congresses of peace workers which I have attended, and while it did not have quite so many persons present of international reputation as I have sometimes seen, it was, all considered, the one which gave the most useful, courageous addresses. It presented a platform which was commanding and prophetic. The congress was a surprising success and marks the beginning of a great campaign of education upon the substitutes for war which ought to sweep this country between now and 1915 when the third Hague conference meets. The Middle West is being aroused to the importance of the study of the problems which Congressmen Bartholdt and Tawney presented so powerfully. The great Chicago Women's Club voted to have a standing committee upon peace and arbitration, to hold one public meeting a year and to form a group to begin the systematic study of the questions. Other clubs are to follow suit. The congress gave a great impetus to the work in the schools, now systematically begun by the American School Peace League. Five times as many requests to send speakers to the schools were sent in as could be gratified. But the work done in them by all the speakers who could be sent will bear rich fruit. The interest and enthusiasm were unbounded. Chicago may well be congratulated on the superb way in which she has carried through the Second National Peace Congress.

JENKIN LLOYD JONES
CHICAGO

Armaments as Irritants

Not since the great Parliament of Religion in 1893 has so high a chord been struck in the municipal consciousness of Chicago as

that reached by the Peace Congress just closed.

The cosmopolitan character of the program, the spontaneity, enthusiasm, and hearty response from the large audiences were a demonstration of the contention of the congress that exceeded in force the many arguments presented. It shows how irresistible is the logic that antiquates armaments and puts the military out of business except as a police force within national lines and between nations. For this purpose one army and one navy sustained by all the nations would be more effective as well as more logical than the awful expensiveness of separate equipments.

The heart of the congress was found in the inter-racial, international and inter-denominational character of the magnificent gatherings. Race and creed on national, social, economic, and industrial lines were forgotten in the high consciousness of the coming brotherhood.

Special thanks are due the Chicago Association of Commerce for the cordial and generous way in which they financed the great meeting; to the efficient way in which the newspapers extended their influence, showing what a power the newspapers can be when they take a serious matter seriously as they did in this instance; and lastly to Rev. C. E. Beals, field secretary of the American Peace Society, and the Royal L. Melendy, the secretary of the Chicago Committee, without whose efficient labors the things could not have been.

W. A. MAHONEY

CHAIRMAN, COM. ON INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION. BOARD OF TRADE, COLUMBUS, O.

The Need of the Hour A Leader

Mars as God of War must smile grimly as he witnesses the mad race for big armies and navies, in which the great nations are now straining their resources in efforts to outrun each other. The common people are tiring in the race. They want rest; not so the militarists. The people are calling for peace through such voices as that of Mr. Baker, member of the British Parliament, who tells us that the nations are looking to the United States as the one that can lead all others to saner methods of preserving peace.

A leader is needed in the United States. Where can a better leader be found in America than the city of Chicago? Who can lead Chicago more wisely, tactfully, energetically, than its honored citizen who led to the splendid accomplishment of the Columbian Exposition of 1893—Harlow N. Higinbotham? What higher motive is needed than to be a leader of the world in laying firm, broad foundations on which the peace of the world may ever rest secure?

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON,

Department Editor

A LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY PARK

The Metropolitan Park Commission of Rhode Island celebrated Lincoln's birthday this year by establishing a beautiful reservation of woodlands, lakes and hills in the crowded northern district of the state, and naming it Lincoln Woods Park.

A PLEA FOR STATE PARKS

The State Park Board of Wisconsin has issued in beautiful form a report by John Nolen, on the advisability of state parks for Wisconsin. The picture reproduced forms the frontispiece of the pamphlet. It is a characteristic bit of scenery which might be one of many points on the Mississippi as, for example, the bluff on which the people of Dubuque, Iowa, are now making their park. Although the report deals particularly with local conditions, it constitutes a strong general plea for state parks, which have a function of their own to fill midway between municipal parks on the one hand and national parks on the other.

"WE RISE BY STEPPING STONES"

There was mention in this department last month of the big "booster" dinner in Providence. An editorial on the subject, in a Providence paper, refers the marked development of public spirit in place of popular selfishness to the recent metropolitan park movement. "For several years now," says the article, "a new force has been working upon the people of this city. It probably started with the movement that, in the face of strong active opposition and heavy indifference, has secured the project of public parks and playgrounds for all Rhode Islanders. This cause aroused civic pride and put into action forces that now can be used for the promotion of other public enterprises." The article formed a very interesting argument.

PROGRESS BRED IN THE BONE

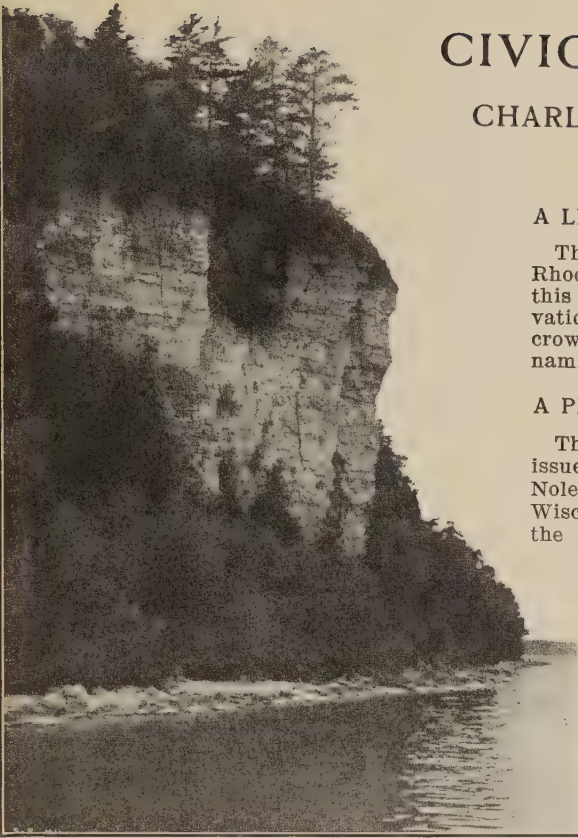
It is all right, says a bulletin of the Salem Civic League, to want improvements: "but what Salem badly needs along with that big wishbone is more backbone"—a sage comment widely applicable, and often with more force than in awakened Salem.

COUNTRY WALKS FOR CHILDREN

The Chicago Playground Association's cross-country walks for children began in April. The walks continue through the spring months, on Saturday afternoons. A most attractive addition to the program is a series of moonlight walks. One of these, scheduled for this month, takes the party a distance of ten miles, to Sag Bridge, where a bonfire supper it to be served. Among the societies that have been interested in these country walks for children of the city are the Camera Club, the Palette and Chisel Club, and the Audubon Society. The very names are enough to suggest the interest and value of the expeditions, and the new worlds they unfold.

CIVIC ART IN ST. PAUL

The formation of a Municipal Art Association has been announced in St. Paul, under the auspices of the Institute of Arts and Sciences. The keynote of the main address at the organization meeting was, of course, the city beautiful and artistic. Mr. Van Sant, the speaker, noted and approved the demand for suitable approaches to the State Capitol and to the new cathedral, and for a complete



system of boulevards; but he urged also the beautifying, in every practical way, of the city streets and the encouragement of a higher class of architecture.

PLAY ON THE WALDORF ROOF

Although the newspapers devoted a great deal of space to the formal opening of the roof playground of the Hotel Waldorf, New York, they missed the really important and interesting feature of the affair. They described at length the festival, at which children from the settlements danced and women from the avenue drank tea and watched, and they left it to be inferred that it was for that sort of thing the Waldorf playground was established. But its real purpose is to give pleasure, healthful exercise and vent for animal spirits to the little fluffy-ruffled, starched, and combed children of the hostelry. That those pampered darlings, whose normal exercise—poor things—is so often like that of a lady's lap dog, to be led on a leash up and down the avenue and to be driven in the park, want, and are to have, the chance to teter, to grub in sand, to slide on a smooth plank; the chance for joyous, healthful living, which the usual playground gives to the child of the tenements—that is the great thing, and the thing worth seeing.

WHEN WISHING PAYS

A few months ago the people of the delightful old city of Geneva, N. Y., were wishing for parks, the *Geneva Times* was publishing articles in advocacy of them, business men were discussing them, and no doubt boys and girls were wishing that the fairies would drop at least one park down into the city of Geneva some night when nobody was looking. Fairies take strange disguises sometimes, but any Geneva child can see a fairy now in the person of Henry Loomis, for on St. Valentine's day he gave a valentine of part of the Loomis Woods as a city park, and last month he rounded out the present with the rest of the woods. In all there are some thirty acres. Probably if the people had not been wishing for parks, they never would have had them. The city has agreed to maintain the tract.

CHILDREN'S CIVIC PLEDGE

We were speaking here last month of a civic revival meeting in Boston, when a great auditorium shook with the roar of thousands of "I wills" to a pledge of civic consecration. A correspondent caps that story with the following: "A thousand bright boys and girls recently gathered in one of the parks in Charleston, S. C., to listen to how they, as young citizens, could help their city to be clean and attractive; then went to a hall where they subscribed to the civic pledge, and so filled the hall with their bodies and enthusiasm that the promi-

nent men and women who had come to witness the pledge-taking could not secure standing room. The children sang patriotic songs, received buttons, and departed full of civic pride for their city and their native land." *A propos* of this, it may be well to say that the civic department of the General Federation of Women's Clubs is helping establish junior civic leagues, and has a leaflet containing the constitution and by-laws, and the civic pledge. Edwin F. Moulton, of Warren, Ohio, is the chairman of the department.

CIVIC WEEK IN SPOKANE

Many cities have "clean up days"; but last month Spokane had a civic week, and an eight day week, too, formally designated by the mayor, and devoted to the cleaning of streets, alleys and private grounds, the beautifying of the city, and the discussion of civic problems. One feature was the planting of quantities of trees, shrubs, and vines by the Spokane Tree Planting Association, which in itself is an interesting organization, being composed of children above the third grade in the public schools of whom there are said to be between twelve and thirteen thousand. Spokane is still small enough—about 120,000 population—to make such work as that of civic week effective in improving the aspect of the whole city; and the city is prosperous, ambitious and enterprising, with excellent leaders in the mayor and president of the Park Commission, so that just now it is one of the country's most interesting centers of municipal development. Seattle is another, and those who go to the Alaska-Yukon Exhibition this summer will by no means be going into the "wild and woolly." If they are students of municipal progress, there will be much to interest them.

FREE TREES IN DENVER

It has become a custom in Denver one day each year for the city to give, without charge, trees for street planting. This year 20,000 maples and elms were distributed from three stations. Applicants brought orders obtained from supervisors and aldermen, and at every station there was a waiting crowd, with all manner of conveyances. Directions were issued for the planting, and in Denver making a tree grow means a good deal more than simply sticking it in the ground. It means a great deal of watering.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY

The Kansas City Public Library issued about a year ago a Municipal Betterment Bibliography. It has been issued in pamphlet form, and presumably single requests for it will be honored as long as the supply lasts. The list of titles covers more than fifty large pages. The subjects are as diverse as Public Baths, Child Labor, Elec-

tions, Municipal Art, the Housing Problem, Food Adulteration, Social Settlements, Utopias, and Street Railways. While the bibliography is probably in no case complete, even to the date of issue, yet it is a compendium of great value. In a sort of preface, Mrs. Whitney, the editor, declares that "the betterment idea must be worked out in unison by the citizens, not as individuals but as a unit," that "the problem of city improvement is the most pressing question of the day, and the new conditions are studied with great attention. Cities are outvying each other in ornamenting, in lighting, and in making pleasing and commodious accommodations for the people. . . . Parks, playgrounds, public baths, are now necessary furnishings for well-organized cities. . . . The ideal city of our century must have civic beauty as well as civic safety, and the responsibility rests on every individual, as a part of a unit, to accomplish this end."

PROPOSING A WATER PARK

Athletic societies and clubs in San Francisco have been urging upon the supervisors during the winter the establishment of a water park at some point on the north beach, probably near the foot of Van Ness avenue. It is argued that "although facing the water on three sides, San Francisco has no public place of aquatic recreation. The commercial water front is not inviting, and on Sundays the wharf gates are usually locked. Bathing, and fishing are practically impossible in those waters, fouled by discharges. Boating is much restricted by the cost of mooring places." An advocate of the project says of it:

"Our plans would call for a beautiful green, a public mooring place, baths, grandstand and band pavilion. Thousands of people could find recreation and amusement there the year around. It would appeal to the seaman as well as to the landsman, while it would be a wonderful boon to all the followers of aquatic pastimes, of which San Francisco boasts so many thousands." An estimate has been made that the necessary property would cost about \$200,000.

PARK GIFT TO COLUMBUS

Announcement that Robert Wolfe, of Columbus, Ohio, had bought a tract of land, had engaged a landscape architect to make plans for its artistic development, and that he proposed to present it to the city as a park, is good enough in itself. But there is even more to it than appears on the surface. Something over a year ago a commission of five outside experts, who had been working over the problem of making Columbus a more beautiful city, presented their report. They recommended, among other things, that the tract which Mr. Wolfe has

now bought be acquired for park purposes, and they made this recommendation in spite of the fact that the tract, lying on the most fashionable residence street and in the direction of growth, was of large value for building. Probably when it was announced a few months ago that the land was to be sold for building purposes, a good many people solemnly shook their heads at the impracticability of artists' dreams. But the dream is coming true without costing Columbus anything, and the landscape architect of the commission is the man into whose hands Mr. Wolfe has placed the planning of the park. It is common experience that when a city or town receives a concrete ideal of what it might and should become, it gets a great deal nearer to realizing that ideal than any one thinks at the time it will ever get.

BEAUTIFYING SCHOOL YARDS

Chicago's progressive Board of Education, under the leadership of the board's architect, Dwight H. Perkins, has planned for the expenditure this year of \$150,000 for the adornment of school yards. Fifty schools have been selected, each of them having in its yard not less than thirty square feet of play space for each pupil. The idea is to put flowers and shrubs around the borders and against the building, where they will least interfere with the playground; but the work is all to be done under expert guidance, so that the result will be a very distinct contribution to the attractiveness of the school setting. The extent of this year's appropriation is in recognition that this sort of work has ceased to be an experiment in Chicago. It has been in practice there for some years, and is exceedingly popular with the children themselves, a rivalry in beauty of grounds growing up among the schools that have been thus improved. It is pointed out by an advocate of the plan that not only are the plants of study value, and not only do they educate the children, all unconsciously, to appreciate beauty; but that by such transformation the school becomes a pleasure to the residents of its neighborhood, and its possibilities as a social center are correspondingly enhanced. Such are the ramifications of civic aesthetics!

A CAPITOL ART COMMISSION

The Colorado Legislature has passed a bill creating a Capitol Art Commission. This commission will co-operate with the Art Commission of the City and County of Denver. Heretofore, with an art commission doing excellent work for Denver, there has been the incongruity that the capitol and its grounds were exempted from such direction.

VACANT LOT PRIZES

A variation of the rather familiar custom of offering prizes for the most improved front yards in a town is the offer of prizes for the greatest improvement in vacant lots—this improvement to include cleaning up, and planting grass, flowers, or vegetables.

The plan is being tried this year by the Salem Civic League, and very wisely the terms of the contest do not require that only the owners of such lots shall compete. Any one who can obtain the use of a vacant lot may enter the competition. This will undoubtedly mean the improvement of a great many lots.

ORGANIZED CHARITY

FRANCIS H. MCLEAN, Department Editor

THE PITTSBURGH PLAN

Thus far the experiment of a central council of charities in connection with the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, appears to be so successful that already two southern cities have adopted the essential features of the plan which bids fair to spread still further. Briefly stated the plan is that all the legitimate charities, and social organizations of a city are invited to send two official delegates to a Central Council of Charities, which is a body apart from the board of trustees or directors responsible for the internal administration of the associated charities and yet is one of its component and official parts. In other words the associated charities has a directing and administrative body of its own outside the co-operative group of societies.

This body differs from the charity conferences organized by some other associated charities in that the central council belongs to the societies, and the delegates are called, not invited, to its meetings. Furthermore it has a strictly official character. It is in existence to work out problems of co-operation between individual societies and between them and the various activities of the associated charities itself. Of course the final decisions binding the societies must come from their own boards. But it must be remembered that the manner of presenting plans to these boards is vastly different. The council is not a committee of a foreign society, a charity organization society nor an associated charities, which is suggesting changes, however tactfully, but a great central body of which the official delegates of other societies are part. Both the personnel of the staff of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities and the splendid spirit shown by the societies are responsible for the council's progress there; nevertheless it is significant of the value of the plan that already there has been an agreement on the proposition to district the visiting nurses' work, and that already there are results from the Conference on Dependent Children.

The Central Council will consider not only questions of co-operation and advance in methods, but also problems of general social advance. It has a committee on homeless men and is working with the board of trustees in establishing a system of home col-

lection of small savings. The formation of such committees is common, but it must be remembered that in Pittsburgh they represent the united charitable forces of the community. On the other hand there is the strong board of trustees interested in the Associated Charities as a society and using its strength, influence and its great opportunities to be the co-operating center.

The test so far has demonstrated that this form of associative effort is capable of much usefulness, that it is a logical and happy mean between the associated charities as a single or foreign society and the amalgamation of all charitable activities into one corporation, a present impossibility even if desirable, in a great majority of cities.



LESSON FROM THE SOUTH

Illustrating the need of a reinforced social spirit in many cities of the middle class is the picture of the family of the blind beggar which appears above this item. Not only is there much to be said about the treatment of the family itself, because the group is well known in two cities and has apparently been the victim of the lack of constructive organized charity work but also there is a lesson in the fact that it lives in

an unspeakable tenement, the renovated loft of an old business building about a block away from the center of the city. It is a miserable tale, with human indifference and stupidity responsible for all. It is one of the strongest charity organization lessons which can be preached in the South.

CO-OPERATION IN AMSTERDAM

Amsterdam, N. Y., with a population of 27,000 gives \$25,000 a year in outdoor relief. The State Charities Aid Association received an appropriation of \$50 a month from the county supervisors for a special agent to investigate in connection with dependent children. This agent has undertaken investigations for the Board of Outdoor Relief to help cut down expenditures. One month the board reduced the number of orders from 200 to sixty. There has been the most cordial co-operation in this plan by the public officials.

TRAMPS IN PROVIDENCE

A committee on the tramp problem created by the Providence Society for Organizing Charity has made a report recommending that a labor colony should not be considered until colonies are more generally established in other states. The committee believes, however, that there should be a strict enforcement of the statutes defining tramps "as all transient persons who rove about from place to place begging and all vagrants living without labor or visible means of support," and fixing the penalty at from one to three years in the State Workhouse. It is thought that a few terms of this sort would soon diminish the number of tramps in Providence.

The impracticability of the proposition is not so great as might at first be supposed, for the State Workhouse near Providence is essentially a farm colony. On February 8, 1909, there were 194 persons there, with accommodations for only 210. Sometimes a few more are "crowded in." The committee believes that additional quarters may be provided at small cost.

RECORD OF A SMALL CITY

Preliminary to a consideration of the need of an associated charities in Port Jervis, N. Y., a railroad town with between 8,000 and 10,000 population, it was decided to learn just the size of the superficial poverty problem. It was known that there were many applications for aid and many criminal cases. But it was thought worth while to learn what the real conditions were. The figures, the result of research and of daily records kept by a number of business men, are surprising:

In the year there were 200 applications for aid, of which eighty-three were to the charities commissioner, forty-four to the church societies and seventy-three to the Grand

Army of the Republic. In two months the Y. M. C. A. had twelve requests for work and the Erie Railroad shops 200 in three months. Only sixty of the last were granted. In two weeks four restaurants had five applications for aid daily, a shoe store five, a bakery six, a butcher shop five. Many stores which were asked to keep records said they had refused aid in all cases. Five ministers reported sixteen applications and ten housekeepers four each in two weeks. The courts dealt with 410 criminal cases in the year.

Of course there are duplications, but the investigation is worth serious study by other cities of the same size. It must be remembered that Port Jervis is by no means rich. It is simply a railroad division city and consequently is in one of the main streams of travel from east to west. Even so, this study makes out a *prima facie* case for an associated charities with paid workers in every railroad city of over 7,500. Port Jervis has gone ahead energetically to organize and train a secretary, realizing that it has only scratched the surface, and that there is much more social work to do besides handling the superficial poverty problem.

MR. BYALL IN TOLEDO

There has been delay in announcing the appointment of J. Bruce Byall as general superintendent of the Federation of Charities of Toledo, Ohio. Mr. Byall is a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania and was a Harrison Fellow in 1902-03. He served as resident manager of the University of Pennsylvania Settlement for four years. In 1902 he took the summer course in the New York School of Philanthropy. Since then he has occupied the positions of assistant secretary of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, general secretary of the Lexington, Ky., Associated Charities, and secretary of the Inquiry Department of the Chicago Bureau of Charities.

The Toledo Federation of Charities was organized several years ago and includes in its membership twenty co-operating societies. Some months back the benevolence committee of the Chamber of Commerce adopted a system of card endorsements of charities, similar to the Cleveland plan, and assumed the financial support of the federation. It was at the request of this committee that Mr. Byall was called to Toledo. Since his arrival a system of records and registration cards has been adopted, a registration of 5,000 families accomplished, and almost 500 complete investigations have been made. A monthly conference to consider civic topics and a weekly conference of relief societies to consider family treatment have been established.

The infirmary directors have dispensed as much as \$175,000 in a single year. Their system of records is inadequate, and the amount of mis-directed relief, due to lack

of information regarding the applicants, is not small. At present the federation is investigating the families assisted by the infirmary, and these records will be placed at the disposal of the directors. A glance at the registration files shows that a large number of families who received help in 1893 are still on the list of applicants.

The benevolence committee is also planning a wayfarer's inn. The City Council recently appointed a committee to co-operate in this matter. Before another winter comes Toledo should be in position to handle the homeless man problem rationally, and the police stations should be closed to tramps once and for all.

MR. WILLIAMS GOES TO DETROIT

James B. Williams, general secretary of the Orange Bureau of Associated Charities, has accepted the position of executive secretary of the Associated Charities of Detroit, Michigan, where he will go this month. The Detroit society is taking on new life and is proposing to broaden and co-ordinate the many phases of charitable work carried on in that city. A number of leading men of the Board of Commerce are behind the movement.

Mr. Williams was graduated from the University of Indiana in 1904, and from the New York Summer School of Philanthropy of the same year. His experience was gained first as an investigator in the Cincinnati Associated Charities and later as its assistant secretary. In the fall of 1905 he was appointed general secretary of the Orange Bureau of Associated Charities.

In the Oranges Mr. Williams's work has been signally successful. Co-operation between the society and the public has been developed and the Charities Building, which is maintained by the bureau, is now headquarters of seven of the charitable organizations. The working relation with the Poor and Alms Departments and with the Boards of Health has been strengthened and developed to such a degree that there is almost perfect co-operation between these bodies and the society, which is significant in that there are four different city departments, rather than one, as is the case in most cities.

Contributions to the bureau have increased as needed and there has been very little difficulty in securing money for relief and for general expenses. The cost of appeals has rarely averaged over five per cent of the contributions.

The industrial work carried on by the society has been put on a self-supporting basis by Mr. Williams, whose efforts in the distribution of the unemployed to farms during the depression were very successful.

As executive secretary of the Anti-Tuberculosis League, Mr. Williams has helped organize and make the work effective by the establishment of clinics, and the co-operation of the Boards of Health, the nurses' organizations and the doctors.

Mr. Williams, while acting as secretary of



JAMES B. WILLIAMS.

the associated charities, has been actively identified on the boards of directors of the following organizations and committees: Children's Aid and Protective Society of the Oranges, Child Labor Committee, Fresh Air Work, Home and School League, Committee on the Study of the Charitable Finances of the Oranges which recommended federation in the collection of funds for charitable purposes; director of the Ohio Summer School for Social Workers, and secretary of the Charities Conference of the Oranges.

NEBRASKA NON-SUPPORT LAW

The full text of the bill regarding non-support of wives and children which has become a law in Nebraska largely through the efforts of the Associated Charities of Omaha, and to which allusion has been made in these columns, has come to hand.

The first section is worthy of serious consideration by those interested in better legislation in this direction. It provides that any person who wilfully fails, refuses or neglects to support his wife, minor child, or children, or, being able to work and contribute to their support, refuses to seek work or neglects to do it when found, or wilfully conducts himself so as to be discharged from work, shall, upon conviction, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and punished by imprisonment in the county jail not exceeding three months. If after conviction he shall

enter into bonds with sufficient surety that he will provide for his family, then the court may suspend sentence. After conviction he may be paroled, in the discretion of the court, upon condition that he make an assignment of his wages to the person to whom he has been paroled, who shall collect the same upon assignment and pay it as the court may direct for the support of his family. Upon failure of the accused to comply with the conditions of parole or his violation of any of them, he may be ordered to appear before the court to answer why said sentence should not be passed, and the court may pass sentence, or for good cause may modify the order or make new order of parole or further suspend sentence.

BIRMINGHAM'S OPPORTUNITY

The Associated Charities of Birmingham, Alabama, has been organized with this directorate: President, W. P. G. Harding; vice-president, Samuel Ullman; treasurer, George B. Tarrant; temporary secretary, W. E. Urquhart; directors, Rufus N. Rhodes, E. S. Moore, John H. Frye, J. M. Meighn, J. W. Brockman, Emil Lesser, M. V. Joseph, Robert Jemison, Jr., Dr. Don C. La Verne, Escar Floyd, Walker Percy, Dr. B. L. Wyman, John L. Kaul, S. D. Weakley.

The executive committee is composed of S. D. Weakley, chairman; Rufus N. Rhodes, M. V. Joseph, Robert Jemison, Jr., and John L. Kaul. The finance committee membership is John H. Frye, chairman; J. M. Meighn, E. S. Moore.

The Pittsburgh plan of a Central Council of Charities has been embodied in the constitution and the following societies have been asked to send official delegates to it:

Mercy Home, United Charities, Boys' Club, Boys' Industrial School, District Nurses, Free Kindergarten Association, School Improvement Association, Girls' Home (West End), Wesley House, Young Women's Christian Association, Young Men's Christian Association, Daughters of Israel, Council of Jewish Women, United Jewish Charities and the two Catholic organizations doing charity work. There is to be a representative from the office of the mayor and a representative from the County Board of Revenue. The representation may be increased.

The society will not begin active operations until fall. The organization is most promising, because the reluctance hitherto expressed by Birmingham men in assuming full responsibility for the direction of a philanthropic organization has been overcome. In many respects Birmingham resembles its great northern sister industrial city, Pittsburgh. For that reason it is fitting that the first central council in the South should be organized there. Birmingham has become a flourishing metropolis. In the valley there is an estimated population of 150,000, which one day will be Greater Birmingham. It has drawn its population

from far and wide, and all within the last twenty-five or thirty years. Its social problems are therefore both northern and southern. This has already been demonstrated by the efficient work of the probation officers, Maurice Willows and J. H. Graham, and the boys' club which they manage. Their case work has been a revelation of the need of a strong Associated Charities. There are efficient children's societies and strength in other directions, but not sufficient organization for the fundamental struggle. But just as Pittsburgh is leading for her section, so, under competent leadership, will Birmingham point the way for other southern cities.

Finally, it needs to be stated that the Associated Charities supersedes an older organization, which, with fine spirit, stepped aside for the broader work of the new society.

ORGANIZATION IN FLORIDA

The Associated Charities of Pensacola has been recently organized and will begin active work in about a month. The society starts on the plan of special case funds and personal service with emergency relief only from the general fund. It will succeed an older United Charities which was purely a relief giving agency. The idea of adequate relief, adequate treatment, adequate co-operation, adequate dealing with sources of weakness, is plainly brought to the front. The society was organized while the national tuberculosis exhibit was in the city. It was decided immediately to create a committee on tuberculosis. The following officers were elected: John E. Stillman, president; Sol Cahn, vice-president; Ellis Knowles, secretary; R. M. Robinson, treasurer; A. Greenhut, J. W. Dorr, W. B. Ferriss, Patillo Campbell, Dr. D. W. McMillan, Thomas Johnson, Geo. W. Johnston, John Pfeiffer, Walker Ingraham, J. H. Sherrell, directors. Pensacola has progressed considerably in the last few years in civic development and the society starts with a very strong directing council. It has the honor of being the first associated charities started in Florida.

"CAVE-IN-ROCK" TO EVANSVILLE

Evansville, Ind., takes first prize for the latest "passing on" story. Charity organization societies are rich in tales of unfortunate out-of-works shipped from city to city without thought for the organizations that must take them in charge (or, perhaps, send them on) when they arrive. But the consignment of eleven men, women and children, not counting a dog, that dropped into Evansville from Shawneetown last month is the largest of the kind on record. There was William Winters, the father of the family; Nancy, his wife; Solomon, a two-year-old; Esther, five; Charlie, seven, and May, Linnie and Margaret, nine, thirteen and fifteen years



THE WINTERS FAMILY.

old. With Maggie, age three, came Mrs. Lindy Norris and her one-month-old baby. Mrs. Norris was only "a friend of the family, whose husband went away." Sport, a yellow dog, brought up the rear of this procession that lined up in front of the lodging house and asked Superintendent Moredock for a night's lodging. Over his shoulder Winters carried a muzzle-loading gun, one that "my daddy packed during the war." Esther swung a powder horn and Margaret was the proud owner of a guitar.

The Winters lived in Hardin county, Kentucky, where the father of the family did odd jobs at blacksmithing and "ploughing corn for bits a day." Lately, work became slack and Winters went to Shawneetown and for days wandered around without a job

until a friendly station agent told him of Evansville, the city of much work and big pay. Winters possessed just \$7.50, and, strange to say, that was the exact amount that would take him and his family and the family's friend and the dog to Evansville. So to Evansville they went (it was their first railroad journey), and there they stayed until the next day, when A. F. Corbin, secretary of the Associated Charities, arranged with the city officials to send them back to 'Cave-in-Rock' and the blacksmith shop. The Evansville newspapers say that just before the river boat carried the Kentuckians home, Winters stated that "a man couldn't support a family of eleven on fifty cents a day in Evansville. And, anyway, Hardin county is best."

TUBERCULOSIS

PHILIP P. JACOBS, Department Editor

GOVERNORS AID EXHIBIT

Five governors and ex-governors of Georgia, besides a large number of men and women prominent in municipal and state affairs, were on the platform at the opening of the recent exhibition of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis in Atlanta. Ex-Governor W. J. Northern, presided, and addresses were made by Governor Smith, ex-Governor Candler and Mayor Maddox of Atlanta. Among the other prominent officials who assisted were, ex-Governors Terrel and McDaniel, and Governor-elect Brown. The exhibit, which was held for two weeks in the city, aroused unusual enthusiasm. Over 15,000 persons attended. It will be shown in Augusta,

Macon, Savannah and other cities in connection with an "All-Georgia" campaign.

DELAWARE'S NEW HOME

A new site for the Delaware Sanatorium for Consumptives has been secured about six miles from Wilmington, on a trolley line, and within less than an hour's ride from the city. It comprises fifty acres with a good farmhouse, a considerable amount of fruit, and land for gardening and other purposes. The Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Association which conducts the sanatorium is planning extensive improvements and additions. The shacks which were formerly located in Brandywine Hundred are being removed. Under a recent act of the Legislature the state association will care for all state patients.

ORGANIZED CLINICS IN BROOKLYN

Brooklyn has organized an Association of Tuberculosis Clinics, similar to the one in New York. The officers of the society are: Dr. John Baker, of the Jay Street Dispensary, president; Dr. Stoney, of the Bay Ridge Dispensary, vice-president; James Jenkins, Jr., of the Tuberculosis Committee of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, secretary. There are four dispensaries in the association. Eight months ago there was only one dispensary for the boroughs of Kings and Queens. One of the newest dispensaries is in Brownsville, a rapidly growing and already congested section from which a great many of the cases of tuberculosis come. The Jay Street Dispensary is now open one evening every week. This is especially for the working men and women who cannot attend the clinic during the day without loss of time and money.

DUST IS DEADLY

The Mortality From Consumption in Dusty Trades, is an article by Frederick L. Hoffman in a bulletin published by the Bureau of Labor, of the Department of Commerce and Labor. The writer discusses the processes and working conditions in occupations which, because of dust, are injurious to health and lead to the development of consumption. Much valuable material from official sources and insurance statistics is also presented, showing the excessive mortality in dusty occupations. Forty-two are considered. They are divided into four groups, according to exposure to metallic, mineral, vegetable fibre or animal and mixed fibre dust.

Of the deaths from all causes among males fifteen years of age and over in the registration area of the United States, 14.8 per cent were from consumption. According to industrial insurance experience the comparative proportions were 36.9 per cent for occupations exposed to metallic dust, 28.5 per cent for those exposed to mineral dust, 24.8 per cent for those exposed to vegetable fibre dust, and 32.1 per cent for those exposed to animal and mixed fibre dust. The workmen showing the highest consumption mortality were grinders, 49.2 per cent of whose deaths were from that disease.

In each occupation group the highest consumption mortality was among persons from twenty-five to thirty-four years of age, the proportion of deaths being 57.2 per cent in those exposed to metallic dust, 47.6 per cent in those exposed to mineral dust, 53.9 per cent in those exposed to vegetable fibre dust and 53.3 per cent in those exposed to animal and mixed fibre dust, as compared with 31.3 per cent for males in the registration area.

The bulletin is No. 79 of the bi-monthly series issued by the Bureau of Labor.

CANADIAN ASSOCIATION MEETING

The ninth annual meeting of the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Consumption and Other Forms of Tuberculosis will be held in Hamilton, May 19 and 20. Dr. William Charles White of Pittsburgh, Dr. J. S. Adami of Montreal, Dr. C. J. Fagan of Victoria, B. C., are among the speakers.

CONSUMPTION AND THE TEETH

Dr. William Woodbury and Walter E. Kruesi of Boston are preparing a joint paper to present before the International Dental Congress which meets in Berlin next August, on The Importance of Oral Hygiene for the Protection of Health Against Infectious Diseases—Particularly Tuberculosis. Statistics are being gathered throughout the United States on the extent and character of public provision for the care of the teeth and mouth.

CLEVELAND LOSES HOSPITAL

Contrary to the hopes of the Cleveland Anti-Tuberculosis League and its sympathizers, the special election recently held in that city on the \$250,000 bond issue for the erection of a municipal tuberculosis sanatorium resulted adversely. A majority of the votes was cast for the sanatorium, but, as a two-thirds majority is necessary, the question was lost. The Cleveland league inaugurated the campaign to secure the bond issue through a special committee composed of Harry D. Thomas, Norman C. McCloud and James F. Jackson, superintendent of the Associated Charities. The Chamber of Commerce gave its formal assent and the Associated Charities, churches and labor organizations, democratic newspapers and one republican newspaper joined in urging approval.

PITTSBURGH'S NEW DISPENSARY

As a memorial to the energy and perseverance of fifteen young women of the Dispensary Aid Society of the Tuberculosis League of Pittsburgh an airy and commodious dispensary building adjoining the Tuberculosis Hospital, Bedford avenue and Wandless street, erected at a cost of \$7,000, was dedicated on April 3. By private subscriptions, lectures and entertainments the band of fifteen raised every penny in a little more than a year. The president of the society is Miss Kate Spencer, and the other members are Miss Winifred H. King, Miss Mary B. Shultz, Miss Gwendolin Burgwin, Miss Elsie McCutcheon, Miss Rebecca F. Chislett, Miss Margaret Curry, Miss Paulin Dilworth, Miss Carolyn L. Hays, Miss Frances H. Huselton, Miss Lucille Mellon,



PITTSBURGH LEAGUE DISPENSARY.

Miss Isabella D. Ranshaw, Miss Mary H. Rodd, Miss Ellen D. Sellers, Mrs. Kirke P. Lincoln.

PROPOSED TEXAS COMMISSION

After vetoing a bill granting a liberal appropriation for a state sanatorium of 200 beds, on the ground that this was insufficient to meet the needs of the state, Governor Campbell of Texas, in a special message, urges the Legislature to pass a law establishing a commission on tuberculosis, on the basis of whose report proper legislation may be enacted in 1911. Most of the friends of the dead bill, however, consider this step simply an attempt on the part of the governor to quell the storm of protest which has arisen over his veto.

FIVE LABOR CAMPS

As a result of the New York Legislature's amendment of the laws relating to the establishment of tuberculosis hospitals or camps, the labor unions in Oswego, Binghamton, Brooklyn, Auburn and Geneva are preparing to erect such institutions.

LOUISIANA'S GOOD YEAR

Not many anti-tuberculosis associations can boast of a more successful year than that completed by the Louisiana Anti-Tuberculosis League. A year ago the society was in debt and had contracts out for a sanatorium. To-day all obligations have been met, and the league has over \$10,000 in bank. During the year it received a gift of \$14,000 from the custodian of the yellow fever fund, the amount remaining from the sum contributed in 1905 to stamp out the fever. The league conducts a sanatorium and a special tuberculosis dispensary. A number of local associations have been founded in various parts of the state. By a recent house to house canvass 1,000 women of New Orleans raised \$8,000 in one day for the benefit of the clinic and the women's dispensary of that city.

5,000 TUBERCULOUS CHILDREN

In a report on tuberculosis among school children by a special commission of Boston's School Committee, this statement is made: "Your commission believes that 5,000 is a conservative estimate of the number of tuberculous children in the public schools of Boston." In view of this fact, the commission recommends:

That more systematic and thorough examination be made of all suspicious children and of all found to be of tuberculous parents.

That those cases already well advanced should be excluded from the public schools.

That the less advanced but definitely tubercular children be placed

in separate outdoor schools, specially conducted for their benefit.

That the large class of children who are not so definitely tubercular, or in whom the disease has not advanced to a stage dangerous to others, be given special attention and supervision, and that open-air rooms in the regular schools be provided for them.

Boston already has one open-air school and is equipping its newer school buildings with open-air rooms.

BOSTON'S DIRECTORY

The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis has issued a new directory for Boston and its vicinity. It is an attractive pamphlet of twenty pages and includes information concerning all hospitals and sanatoriums, private and public, which receive tuberculous patients; boarding houses and homes; dispensaries and tuberculosis classes; associations and educational organizations interested in the work.

IN RURAL DISTRICTS

According to a statement recently issued by the Tuberculosis Committee of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, "consumption is decreasing in the cities and increasing in the country districts. On the basis of the average for the five years, 1901 to 1905, the death rate of the former dropped from 203.5 to 185.0 in a 100,000 population, while that of the latter increased from 112.7 to 123.0." The figures are based on a bulletin of the New York State Department of Health. The report attributes the high rate in the country to the fact that the instruction and preventive measures now in force in cities, as a result of anti-tuberculosis work, are lacking in the rural districts.

A CHEAP COTTAGE CAMP

A tuberculosis colony, in connection with the Indianapolis Free Tuberculosis Clinic, has been opened on the grounds of the City



INDIANAPOLIS TUBERCULOSIS COLONY.

Hospital. It is unique in the cheap construction of the various cottages, most of which are being donated by fraternal and labor societies, and private individuals. Dr. W. T. S. Dodds, who has charge of the colony, says that a one-room cottage can be built for sixty-two dollars, and a two-room one for eighty dollars. The buildings are lighted by electricity and connected by bells with the central building of the City Hospital. The Indiana Red Cross has donated four of the seven cottages now open. It is hoped to have at least 100.

LOUISVILLE HAPPENINGS

The Louisville Anti-Tuberculosis League reports a total of 646 members and a regular annual income of \$2,903. Fifty-seven patients have been treated since September 1, 1907, at the Association Sanatorium, thirty-three of whom have been discharged as permanently improved and able to go back to their former occupations. Through the continued activity of the association and the city health authorities, the number of deaths has shown a material decrease in spite of an increase in population. The municipal sanatorium will be ready for occupancy before the end of the year.

PINE BLUFF SANATORIUM COMPLETED

The Pine Bluff Sanatorium Company of Salisbury, Md., has completed the main building and shacks of the sanatorium started last summer. It is located on the south bank of the Wicomico River, two miles from Salisbury and will accommodate about a hundred patients.

GAIN IN PENNSYLVANIA

In his annual report, Secretary Wallace Hatch of the Pennsylvania Society for the

Prevention of Tuberculosis, reported that receipts for the year were \$7,353.50 and disbursements \$7,214.05, leaving a balance of \$139.45. He further stated that the membership of the society had increased during the year from 351 to 720. Information concerning the treatment or prevention of tuberculosis was furnished to 2,500 people approximately; 230 lectures were delivered, and 30,000 instruction leaflets and wall cards were distributed. The itinerary of the state exhibit will include Quakertown, Perkasié, Sellersville, Telford, Souderton, Lansdale and other smaller towns.

SICK PHYSICIANS BARRED

Consumptive physicians are barred from licenses to practice medicine in Oklahoma through a resolution of the State Board of Medical Examiners, whose action was taken because of the large number of physicians who, it is claimed, went to the state for their health.

ST. LOUIS'S NEXT COMMISSION

Through an oversight it was stated in last month's Department on Tuberculosis that Mayor Wells of St. Louis had vetoed the bill providing for a second tuberculosis commission. The mayor vetoed the ordinance establishing a system of hospitals recommended by the first commission, but signed the bill providing for a second commission, and granting \$25,000 a year for five years for educational work and investigations. This is the largest municipal grant on record for purely educational purposes. On the commission are Edward F. Goltra, chairman; Rev. Timothy Demsey, vice-chairman; Robert J. Newton, secretary, and D. C. Nugent, Bernard Greensfelden, Bruce Starke and Rev. B. T. Kemerer.

LABOR UNIONS' GOOD WORK

Edwin R. Wright, president of the Illinois State Federation of Labor, has sent a circular to every labor union man in that state, calling his attention to the nature of consumption and how to prevent it. The circular also gives directions to men seeking treatment, and offers the services of the State Federation to any in need.

A THOUSAND IN SIX MONTHS

San Francisco is not lagging in the fight against consumption. According to the first report for six months' work, the local association has 1,000 members and is in a healthy financial condition. It conducts a clinic,

planned to be the center of a system of similar institutions. Educational lectures and other campaigning methods are meeting with success.

NEWARK'S NEW SECRETARY

Ernest D. Easton has been chosen secretary of the Committee of One Hundred on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of Newark, N. J. He comes from Providence, R. I., where he was secretary of the Rhode Island Anti-Tuberculosis Association for about two years with unusual success. He began his work in Newark on May 3, and is preparing a permanent exhibit and arranging for a day and night camp.

DEPENDENTS AND DEFECTIVES

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Department Editor

COMMON SENSE WITH THE INSANE

Every change in the treatment of the insane which is in the direction of treating them more like normal people is a distinct gain. The prospects of cure are increased and the condition of the chronic made more endurable. The vacation cottage on Lake Ontario, to which Dr. Hurd sends groups of patients from the Buffalo Hospital for two week outings, is an interesting experiment which is wholly successful. Governor Crothers of Maryland, proposes industrial occupation for all the patients of the asylums in Maryland, and even hopes to make their labor a source of revenue as well as an immense benefit to themselves. These plans are in line with the best practice. It is only a question of time until every state will care for all its insane and defectives and make a great many of them self-supporting and all the happier for being so.

IMPROVING THE RACE

The American Academy of Political and Social Science devoted its annual meeting to the question of race improvement. No one offered any practical suggestion as to positive eugenics, selection of the best stock for reproduction. Negative eugenics, however, by the control of the degenerate, was shown to be entirely feasible, not in some dim future when the affairs of society shall be wholly controlled by science, but at once and under present laws and beliefs. It is only a question of extending the present methods, so as to take into state institutions all, instead of a few of the degenerates. There is plenty of proof in half a dozen states that this is feasible without inordinate cost, and although the initial expense was shown to be necessarily high, perhaps as high as that of the purchase of a "Dreadnought" for each

state, the subsequent reduction of tax rate for the support of these classes would be increasingly rapid.

The fact is that given land enough, with common sense and ordinary executive ability, the defectives may be properly and humanely cared for, their natural increase absolutely stopped, and themselves made reasonably happy, at a very low cost. All the higher grades are entirely capable of self-support under proper care and guardianship, many others may be led to do much for themselves.

WHAT IS SELF-SUPPORT?

The frequent criticism of the claim of self-support by an imbecile worker, is that he cannot be depended on for a full man's work. But if he could he would be three times self-supporting. In any rationally organized community the common laborer can earn enough to support himself, his wife and a family. If not where's the next generation of workers to come from? The imbecile has no wife or family. If, therefore, he does one-third of a full man's work, or just as much more than that as will make up for the extra supervision he requires because he is an imbecile, he may rightly claim to be self-supporting. The above arguments were well received by the academy.

THE INSANE IN MARYLAND

The campaign keeps up. A conference of state officials and the governor was held at Annapolis recently to debate on how to raise the money needed by the state care act which goes into effect January 1, 1911. The present revenues are not adequate without many changes. It seems wrong to issue bonds for current expenses. One suggestion is to divert to the care of the insane all or part of the \$700,000 which is now annually

used to subsidize private charitable institutions. Another plan is to make the cost a charge on the municipalities, either in whole or part. Probably some sort of a compromise will be effected. A tax of three cents on the \$100 valuation would provide all the money needed. The prospects of a decreasing tax rate are not bright anywhere. Meanwhile the good citizen determines to get what he pays for and to know that he gets it.

A NEW PLAN IN BUFFALO

Dr. Hurd and Dr. Frost are to be made special police officers, and every person arrested by the police under suspicion of being insane, instead of being taken to the police station, will at once be taken to the hospital where he will have proper care until examined by the police surgeon. Why cannot a similar plan be adopted in every city where there is a hospital of the kind? And, surely, very soon every city will have its psychopathic hospital, central and accessible.

PERMANENT CARE FOR INCORRIGIBLES

After we have safely housed all the insane, the epileptics, the idiots and the feeble-minded, there are other classes of degenerates for whom the same treatment is clearly indicated. The Foxboro State Hospital, Massachusetts, which is devoted to the cure of alcoholism, says in its annual report, recently published:

"Sooner or later the commonwealth must face the fact that a permanent detention colony for confirmed and incorrigible drunkards is a necessary link in her chain of public institutions. There is no opportunity to care for such persons at Foxboro.

"The repeated short criminal sentence of the rounder at the island or house of correction is admittedly futile so far as its reformatory effect is concerned, is expensive to the commonwealth, and is simply an example of the penalty which fails to fit the crime."

There's no doubt that the chronic drunkard, kept sober, may be made to earn his own living, and do something for his family, if he has one, besides.

HOW NOT TO CARE FOR DEFECTIVES

The border line cases of defectiveness among girls constitute the greatest danger in the way of increasing numbers of degenerates. It is one of the imperative duties of the mother state to care for these, her weaker children, who are so unable to care for themselves.

Here is the story of cases of "successful" placing out of such girls from one of the best institutions in the world for delinquent girls, the Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, Mass. Is there need of argument to convince every intelligent citizen that these

poor creatures should be safely mothered as long as they live?

To quote from the report on class III, those whose capacity for self-direction and self-support is a question, in which there are numbered 21, "paroled and successes," it is said:

"But how pitiful has been the success of those classed above as 'successes.' Two of them have had an illegitimate child, but have since married and are good though not efficient mothers; one has married a wretchedly poor widower with a family for whom she has neither the willingness nor the ability to care; eight were practically never let out of sight, and it is hard to believe that they will not go wrong when looking out for themselves; nine others were kept safe with a degree less of care, but the outlook for them is not bright; one has been four times returned to the school and has had fourteen different places. Among the thirty-nine classed as 'failures in various degrees' are twenty-one who are now of age, of whom four have each had two illegitimate children; three have each had one illegitimate child; and ten have been unchaste, of whom two have been in Sherborn prison. Three of the above girls are married,—all wretchedly. Of the remaining seventeen who are still on parole, one has two illegitimate children and five have one each."

The only present refuge is the school for the feeble-minded at Waverly. There they are happy with scarcely any restraints. The life there is wholesome and keeps them straight, and so long as they are so environed it is well. But, says the report: "The point of interest for the future to develop will be whether these girls will really be detained through the child-bearing period of their lives. . . . The question of the ability of a feeble-minded school to handle girls of this class has been demonstrated; and their fate if sent out into the world has been demonstrated, too, beyond a peradventure." And this is the deduction of experience:

"Were the policy adopted of sending all of classes one and two to Waverly as soon as recognized, and likewise certain of class three in the earlier stages of failure, the school and the parole department would be set free for their legitimate work of reinstating in the world girls whom there is at least a fighting chance of reclaiming. The state would be saved great expense from the continual increase of the degenerates."

PHILADELPHIA'S POORHOUSES

There is an interesting contest going on in the City of Brotherly Love, about whether the three district poorhouses shall be given up and their inmates moved to a redeemed Blockley, or whether they shall remain where they have been for a hundred years. The claim is made on the one hand that a smaller institution makes adequate care possible; that arrangements can be suited to district conditions and even that the paupers

are allowed and encouraged to be partially self-supporting. On the other hand the expense per capita is shown to be higher, adequate supervision more difficult and although Blockley, in the past, has been—well, Blockley—it's going to be redeemed, its name is to be changed to Home for Indigent and its character modified to make the new name apply. The fact that the measure is an organization one, makes one hesitate to approve it, and to one who believes in small institutions, local self-government and the cottage plan, the controversy is by no means clear. Mayor Reyburn proposes to make the new Blockley so modern as to be "free from all the earmarks of a poorhouse"; and "sunshine and happiness" are to be provided for the inmates. He is certainly confronted by a large undertaking.

TENEMENT DWELLERS AS GARDENERS

Ninety acres of fertile land, laid out and ready for occupancy, whereon they may plant and sow and reap, is the gift of the McCormick Harvester Company to the tenement dwellers of the southwest part of Chi-

cago. Perhaps a few of them will gain, and some will revive, a passion for the soil that will take them back to the land, to simple, wholesome conditions, to God's outdoors as the place to live and work in. But many more will find both economic benefit and good health in their little potato patches. Few if any forms of help to self-help of the poor can show so large an average of success as the work to which Mayor Pingree of Detroit gave his name twenty or more years ago.

CONFERENCES OF OFFICIALS

One of the criticisms of state institutions frequently made and often well founded, is that their improvements rarely come from within, that it is the outsider who studies, observes and suggests. It looks as though the opposite is to be true in Kentucky for the officials of many institutions came together to consider how to improve the conditions of their respective hospitals, etc. Another meeting in July, at Lexington, is to pass on some definite plans to be then formulated.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN R. COMMONS, Department Editor

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

GERMANY PROTECTS WORKING WOMEN

The German Industrial Code has been amended to forbid employment of children under sixteen years and girls over sixteen before 6 A. M. or after 8 P. M. They must be given at least eleven hours between working days. Hours of labor for women over sixteen are limited to ten, with eight on Saturdays and the eves of holidays. Permission to work twelve hours and until 9 P. M. (except on Saturdays and Sundays) may be granted by the lower administrative authorities for two weeks, or not exceeding forty days in the entire year. The higher administrative authorities may grant such permission for not more than fifty days in one year. A complete rest of eight weeks is now required for women during the period of confinement. Six weeks of this time must be after childbirth.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

The legislatures of two states, New York and Wisconsin, are considering new measures for settling trade disputes. The bills are modelled after the Canadian industrial disputes investigation act of 1907, and the important feature of both is the provision for compulsory investigation.

The New York bill proposes to abolish the Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration and create in its stead a Labor Clearance Com-

mission, entirely independent of the Department of Labor, consisting of three members appointed by the governor, at annual salaries of \$5,000. All matters relating to terms of employment, including wages, hours, time of payment, and other conditions under which labor is to be performed; insurance, health and safety of employees; strikes, lockouts, and arbitration of disputes; are placed under the jurisdiction of the commission. It has power to investigate any complaint or controversy, and must report within thirty days. It may subpoena witnesses, compel their attendance and testimony, and require the production of all books and papers that may throw light on the dispute.

In order to give the commission power to settle disputes, the bill provides that industrial contracts between employers and employees may contain express provision for reference of all disputes to the commission for investigation and adjustment, and it may further provide that no strike or lockout shall take place until after the commission has inquired into the dispute and made a report. Where such an agreement has been made the courts are given power to issue injunctions, at the request of the commission, to prevent strikes, lockouts, discharge or cessation from work until the report of the commission has been filed. It is probable that this last provision of the bill would be unconstitutional. The courts will

not compel a man to work even if he has made a written agreement to do so.

The Wisconsin bill avoids this difficulty by prohibiting, until the investigation is made, not the mere cessation of work but the combination to enter into a strike. The individual is free to quit work whenever he wants to. The Wisconsin bill recognizes also that arbitration by an outside party in competitive industries is likely to undermine the trade unions in those industries. The prohibition to strike until after an investigation is made is limited, therefore, to public utilities, where the courts will hold that the public interest demands uninterrupted operation of the industry, and where the unions are weak and cannot compel satisfactory terms of employment.

Trade disputes on public utilities are placed under the jurisdiction of the Public Service Commission. Whenever a dispute occurs between employer and employes, either party may apply to the commission to appoint a special board of investigation or to submit the difficulties to the State Board of Arbitration. The special board or the state board immediately investigates all matters in controversy, and must report within fourteen days on the merits of the dispute. Prior to or pending this investigation strikes and lockouts on public utilities are prohibited, but after the board's recommendation has been made, either party is free to accept or reject it, and to engage in strikes or lockouts. Provision is made for publication of the board's findings in two newspapers in the locality where the dispute occurs; and this is relied upon to bring about justice on the ground that the public when advised of the facts will support the side that is right.

WM. LEISERON.

ILLINOIS SECTION AT WORK

Women trade unionists in Illinois are waging a campaign for an eight-hour work-day with so much vigor that it has caused consternation among opponents. Contrary to the expectation of many, a bill prepared by the Chicago Waitresses' Union limiting the hours of working women to eight a day and forty-eight a week, was reported out of committee with favorable recommendations. The opponents mustered their forces and vigorously attacked the bill, declaring that it would drive women out of industry in the state. A lobby of trade union girls defended the bill and presented such strong arguments, that at this writing the opposition is proposing a compromise on a fifty-four-hour week.

Among other measures pending in Illinois are an amendment to the present conspiracy law; a bill providing for a jury trial of persons charged with contempt of court in labor injunction disputes; and an amendment to the employers' liability law. The amendment to the conspiracy law provides that where two or more persons con-

spire to commit an unlawful act and in pursuance thereof commit the contemplated crime, they shall not be convicted and punished for the conspiracy but for the consummation of the crime. It provides also that punishment for conspiracy to commit a crime shall not be greater than the punishment prescribed by law for the commission of the crime. Employers are fighting the bill on the ground that it would license violence in strikes, though the measure was not drafted by the labor unions, or intended to apply solely to them.

Efforts of theatrical interests to amend the child labor law so that children may appear on the stage with the consent of parents or guardians, is being combated by the unions, the Illinois Branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation and other organizations.

LUKE GRANT, Secretary.

SWEATSHOP LEGISLATION

A bill has been introduced in Illinois, requiring the licensing of every place where clothing is manufactured and providing that before a license is issued the place must have the approval of the health department or some competent city official.

A few years ago New York enacted similar legislation, but New York is not satisfied with her sweatshop situation. Sanitary inspection is necessary, but at its best inspection can be only intermittent. It would require an extraordinary number of officials to visit all rooms and corners where cigars, flowers, candies, clothing and the hundred other sweatshop articles are manufactured. Furthermore such inspection would need to be at least monthly and almost weekly to prevent effectively the occurrence or spread of disease. If imperfect drainage or unsanitary conditions exist, there is constant menace to health. The trouble lies deeper than mere inspection.

Effective means of eliminating sweatshop evils were discussed at the meeting of the International Association for Labor Legislation at Lucerne last September. It was the unanimous opinion that bad conditions are due fundamentally to low wages, and representatives of different countries urged the organization of wages boards to establish a minimum wage for unprotected classes of workers. England had already initiated such legislation and it had received the approval of practically all classes.

WAGES BOARDS

The sweated industries bill (outlined in THE SURVEY, April 17), providing for a minimum wage in certain trades which was introduced in the House of Commons in February, 1908, has as yet failed to pass. The principles embodied in it have met with such universal approval that the government itself has this year introduced a similar measure intended to replace the first bill. This

new bill, known as the trade boards bill, was introduced by Winston Churchill, president of the Board of Trade.

In some particulars the government bill goes further than its predecessor, but it is criticized by the friends of the first measure as being too permissive in character. It provides that wages boards may be established and that representatives of the workers may be appointed on the boards, while under the sweated industries bill, wages boards shall be established and labor representatives shall constitute part of the membership of the boards. Mr. Henderson asked for a pledge that the government would really carry out the provisions of the bill if it were passed, but no pledge was given. Supporters of the first bill would have accepted the government bill had they been assured that its measures would be carried out. This permissive character of the bill runs through all the provisions. Besides this, practically the entire control and management of the trade boards lie with the Board of Trade.

MINIMUM WAGES

The government bill provides for a minimum wage to be established in five trades: ready-made and wholesale tailoring, cardboard box making, machine-made lace and net finishing, and ready-made blouse making. In Victoria, wages boards establishing minimum wages are in operation in about forty trades, covering nearly two-thirds of the workers of the colony. The principle which has met with the approval of employers and employees is being continually extended.

Under-payment is recognized as one of the most common causes of poverty. It is one form of the "dole" so persistently deplored by charitable societies. By the operation of the wages board, industries paying low wages are compelled to adopt a standard which will keep the workers at least above the poverty line. Such a standard is frequently set by the better class of employers who are in this way protected from the more unscrupulous employer. Some socialists in England criticize the principle and charge that even in Victoria the boards have failed to accomplish their purpose, but practically all interested in the welfare of this unorganized and unprotected class of workers have received the minimum wage idea with enthusiasm. Active anti-sweating movements are being carried on in Berlin and Paris.

IRENE OSGOOD.

OKLAHOMA'S CHILD LABOR LAW

Among the many excellent features of Oklahoma's new child labor law one provision is especially noteworthy. Children under sixteen must be provided with the usual age and school certificates approved by the county superintendent of public instruction or by a school official designated by him. If the information needed for this age

and school certificate cannot be secured from the school census, birth, baptism, or other medical or religious record, the parent, or the child if it has no parent or guardian, may make an affidavit as to age, provided that the child is in good health, of normal size, and "not less than sixty inches in height and weighing not less than eighty pounds." In doubtful cases fitness is to be determined by a medical official from the Board of Health.

Children under fourteen are prohibited from working in factories, theaters, laundries, bowling alleys or pool rooms, or in occupations dangerous to health or morals. Children under sixteen are prohibited from working in dangerous occupations, special mention being made of those where poisonous acids, white lead, dusts, or explosives are used. They cannot be employed in dipping, dyeing or packing matches. Children under sixteen and women are forbidden to work underground in mine or quarry, and girls under sixteen cannot sell or offer for sale newspapers or periodicals in a street or public place.

Except in agriculture or domestic service, hours of work for children under sixteen are limited to eight a day and forty-eight a week. Night work between six p.m. and six a.m. is prohibited for boys under sixteen and girls under eighteen and in those occupations which are forbidden children under fourteen. During working hours seats must be provided for children so far as the nature of the work permits, but girls under sixteen cannot be employed where the nature of their work compels them to remain standing. Details are explicit as to the penalties for violation, the enforcement of the law, and what shall constitute *prima facie* evidence of guilt. On the grounds of the preservation of public health and safety, the act goes into effect immediately after its passage and approval.

The sections in the original bill making it unlawful for common carriers within the state to transport or accept for transportation products of a factory or mine until an affidavit had been filed to the effect that children were not illegally employed, were omitted in the final form.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY COMMISSION

Three state legislatures have passed certain measures which will probably prove to be the most valuable work of this year's sessions. New York, Minnesota and Wisconsin have provided for the appointment of commissions to study and report upon the subject of employers' liability and compensation for accidents.

The experience in Minnesota has brought employers, workingmen and attorneys to the conclusion that no form of a negligence law will be satisfactory. They agree entirely upon some kind of compensation for accidents. Hence the Minnesota law provides "for the appointment of a commission to investigate and report a workingmen's compen-

sation act for the Legislature of 1911." The commission consists of George M. Gillette, president of the Minnesota State Employers' Association, H. V. Mercer, president of the State Bar Association, and William McEwen, commissioner of labor. They have power to examine witnesses, records and papers. No salaries are paid but \$5,000 is appropriated to defray expenses.

This commission is supported by two excellent measures. One requires indemnity or casualty companies to report in duplicate to the insurance commissioner for the use of the liability commission the details of all industrial accidents of which they have knowledge. The second measure requires physicians and surgeons and employers to report in full to the commissioner of labor the details of all industrial accidents. In addition to this the injured employe himself must send to the commissioner of labor a full report of the accident including the causes, his rate of wages, amount of compensation and expenses incurred. From these four sources the information will not only be complete but include all points of view.

In Wisconsin a joint resolution calls for a committee, consisting of four members from the assembly and three from the senate, "thoroughly to investigate the subject of industrial insurance and report a bill or bills covering that subject." No compensation is given but actual necessary expenses are borne by the state. The members of the commission will not be appointed for several weeks.

Three other joint committees were appointed in Wisconsin and when all four are ready to report, the governor is requested to call a special session of the Legislature for the consideration of the bills. The reports are not expected under two years.

IRENE OSGOOD.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY

A precedent of doubtful value has been set by a bill recently passed at Albany, calling for one commission "to inquire into the question of employers' liability and also into the causes and effects of unemployment

in the State of New York." Although such a combination of objects is both illogical and impractical, the bill is nevertheless welcome by those especially interested in the two problems, because it is more than they had reason to hope for.

Two bills were originally introduced, one to create a commission on unemployment, with a \$20,000 appropriation, the other calling for a commission on employers' liability, with a \$5,000 appropriation. The New York branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation had made the support of the latter bill its special interest, while the Committee on Unemployment, of which James B. Reynolds is chairman, was back of the former. The combination of the two, with an appropriation of \$10,000, was apparently an inspiration on the part of the Senate Finance Committee.

The commission is to have fourteen members, three from the Senate, five from the Assembly and six appointed by the governor. It is the hope of all those who worked for the two bills that the commission, in spite of its handicap of divided interests and responsibility, may with the active aid of outside organizations make a valuable report to the Legislature of 1910 or 1911.

Probably no one subject in the realm of labor legislation is so unsettled and so much fought over as the question of negligence and compensation for accidents. It is an encouraging sign that these three commissions, working toward the same end in three of the leading industrial states are considering the possibility of agreeing upon uniform recommendations.

Up to 1907 six treaties have been adopted between different European states, granting to subjects of the signatory states equal rights in the matter of compensation for accidents. Employers too are thus freed from unequal competitive conditions. If European states, differing as they do in language, constitutions and economic conditions, find it profitable to enter into such treaties and agreements the United States ought not to find it altogether impossible or unwise to adopt measures looking toward uniform laws or at least equal treatment of foreigners.

SETTLEMENT OPPORTUNITY.

Neighborhood Settlement House, Lynn, Mass., has vacancies for several resident workers. (One half hour ride from Boston, fare 10 cents.) Terms, \$5.00 to \$8.00 per week. Applications, with references, should be made to the Head Resident, Mrs. GRACE WRIGHT GREGG, 53 Neptune Street, Lynn.

Barrows Memorial Meeting.—A meeting in memory of the late Samuel June Barrows will be held the evening of May 27 at Mendelssohn Hall, under the auspices of the Oratorio Society and the Prison Association of New York. There will be music, and addresses by those intimately identified with Mr. Barrows in prison reform, in the ministry, in literature and in the peace and other humanitarian movements.

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A leading medical authority has recently stated that "one out of seven of all the people who die is prematurely carried off by tuberculosis, and a large proportion of these through *dust-poisoning*, which, *if we choose, we can largely prevent.*"

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

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ROBERT W. DEFOREST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

COMPENSATION FOR INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

In at least three states, Minnesota, Wisconsin and New York, commissions will be at work during the coming year on the subject of compensation for death and injury due to industrial accidents. Unfortunately, in New York the investigation is coupled with that of unemployment, with which it has no logical connection. Such a combination is about as sensible as would be the reference to a single authority of some difficult problem confronting parents in the discipline of children and the problem of the care of aged, indigent spinsters. By rare good luck someone might be found who would take an intelligent interest in both problems; and Governor Hughes and the Legislature may be equally fortunate in selecting a commission that will be able to decide what to do about the unemployed, and also to lay the foundation for appropriate legislation on the subject of compensation for injuries to those who are employed.

For various reasons all parties in interest are becoming thoroughly dissatisfied with the existing situation. Employers, employees, judges, lawyers and economists vie with each other in pointing out the shocking inadequacy of our present statutory and common law provisions. Employers are naturally uncomfortable when they realize that the bulk of the enormous sums which they pay out annually to employers' liability insurance companies is spent not in compensating the families of their workmen who are killed, or in replacing the wages of those who are disabled, but in fighting suits for damages, in contingent fees to lawyers, in expenses and profits made possible and necessary by the uncertainties of the law of negligence. The employee is not satisfied, because in a very large proportion of all injuries he receives no compensation whatever, and when he does receive a liberal award it is usually after a prolonged and expensive series of lawsuits, which have necessarily been financed by others who have thereby established a claim on a large part of the sum nominally awarded to him.

Economists openly attack the doctrines of contributory negligence, fellow servant, assumption of risk, etc., as utterly inconsistent with present industrial conditions, and in lesser degree with earlier conditions as well. Employees do not have that personal knowledge of the faults and peculiarities of their fellow employees, that control over the machinery, that higher wage where risks are great, that power even to moderate and direct their own movements in such a way as to secure immunity from danger, which these comfortable doctrines, however hedged about and modified by other doctrines, assume that they have. Moreover, economists insist that judged by their fruits

the current laws and their current interpretation are not justified in that they do not prevent accidents. As Prof. William James might express it, pragmatically, the doctrines do not cash in. Too many lives have been sacrificed already; too many limbs have been torn bleeding from the bodies of working men—and women and girls—because of unprotected machinery and unenacted legislation. We cannot afford that this slaughter and mangling of human bodies continue. It is a waste of national resources. It is uneconomic. One reason, in the opinion of economists, why it has so long continued is that compensation for accidents is still on such a primitive, unreal, and fantastic basis.

Judges and lawyers have special reason to seek to escape from the false position in which for some sixty years in England and America, through the development of judge-made law, they have had occasion to appeal for justice to the courts because of an injury received while at work. Chief Justice Shaw of Massachusetts in 1842, in the *Farwell* case, denied compensation to an engineer in the service of the Boston and Worcester Railroad for the loss of a hand, on the ground that the derailment of his engine was due to the negligence of a fellow-employee—a switchman in Newton. Lord Abinger, in the *Priestly* case, had taken a similar position, but the case did not bring out so clearly the doctrine on which in England until recent legislation superseded it, and in America to the present day, all decisions in similar cases were to rest. A member of the Massachusetts bar, commenting on these decisions, says:

If a general on the battlefield commits a great strategical blunder which costs thousands of lives, we are thrilled with horror, but a judge may so misapprehend a critical situation as to desolate innumerable homes for generations and we dumbly acquiesce as if viewing a visitation from heaven. That such a result was produced by these decisions will be the enlightened judgment of mankind. They have inflicted unjust and grievous burdens upon two generations of English speaking workmen; they have devastated the homes of thousands; they have aggravated beyond estimate the friction between employer and employed. . . . It is much to be lamented that "considerations of public policy and general convenience" were not more broadly considered. To the great chief justice it seemed inconvenient that this corporation should suffer on account of the neglect of one of its servants whom it had selected perhaps with care; but, on the other hand, it was certainly inconvenient that this engineer should be incapacitated for life through the fault of an agent over whose selection or retention he had no control and for whose negligence he was not remotely responsible.

The problem is exceedingly difficult and complicated; but the gist of it is stated in a word in a petition recently submitted to the governor of Minnesota,—a petition which is most encouraging for the reason that it is signed alike by the Employers' Association and the State Federation of Labor, *viz.*, the transforming of the present system of compensation to employes from the basis of negligence to that of a risk of the industry. This is the simple but fundamental change that is necessary. An injury to an employe, like an injury to a machine, should be a burden upon the industry, to be paid ultimately by the consumer as liability insurance is now. The end which our commissions should seek to accomplish is the substitution of a reasonable, sure and prompt payment for the dazzling and speculative uncertainty of a lawsuit.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING

The first National Conference on City Planning held in Washington May 21 and 22 not only brought together representative men and women interested in scientific city planning from wide diversity of experience and viewpoint, but it led to the formation of a national committee to study the question. This committee will be composed of representatives of such organizations as the Committee on Congestion of Population of New York City, the American Society of Architects, the American Society of Landscape Architects, the American Civic Association, the National Municipal League, and those who attended the national conference, with power to add to its numbers. Another result of the conference is the promise given by the head of the Census Department that the next census, in cities of over 30,000 inhabitants, will have its data arranged by small blocks and that every attempt will be made to standardize and put on a uniform basis of comparison the data collected from different parts of the country, especially matters of social interest.

The congress was marked by great interest and enthusiasm. At the opening meeting J. Van Vechten Olcott presided and the speakers were Henry B. F. Macfarland of Washington, Henry Morganthau of New York, Benjamin C. Marsh, George M. Sternberg, president of the President's Homes Commission, Washington. On Saturday morning Franklin MacVeagh, secretary of the treasury, presided, and there were five speakers on the general subject of city planning in American and foreign cities: Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., president of the American Society of Landscape Architects; Frederick L. Ford, city engineer of Hartford, Conn.; John Nolen,

Robert A. Pope, landscape architects, and George P. Ford, architect.

On Saturday afternoon, the conference considers what has been accomplished in city planning in the United States, Richard Achilles Ballinger, secretary of the interior, presiding. Eleven speakers each gave a ten minute talk on what has been accomplished in city planning in his city: for New York, J. Q. Adams, secretary of the Mayor's Art Commission; Cleveland, Munson A. Havens, secretary of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce; Boston, Arthur A. Shurtleff; Philadelphia, A. W. Crawford; Los Angeles and Denver, Charles Mulford Robinson; Kansas City, W. P. Borland; Washington, Francis G. Newlands; Pittsburgh, Allen T. Burns, secretary of the Mayor's Civic Commission; Baltimore, Josias Pennington, secretary of the Municipal Art Society; San Francisco, Julius Kahn; Detroit, H. C. Baldwin.

At the banquet in the Hotel Raleigh Saturday evening, the toastmaster was Allen D. Albert, Jr., and the speakers included Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch of New York, Speaker Cannon, Henry Morganthau, Henry B. F. Macfarland, Mayor Reyburn of Philadelphia, and J. Randolph Coolidge of Boston. All about the walls of the banquet room was the city planning exhibition taken down from New York. A study of it is published on other pages of this issue.

The object of the Washington Conference was to put on a definite basis the study of city planning from the hygienic, economic and social sides. Many cities have considered the laying out of civic centers, radiating avenues, boulevards, parks and other embellishments, all from an aesthetic standpoint; but practically none has considered so laying out the whole city as to make of it from all points of view an ideal place in which

to live. The Committee on Congestion of Population in New York city called the national congress with the idea of presenting to the American public this hygienic and social phase of city planning.

A CITY PLAN FOR NEW YORK

As a direct outgrowth of the City Planning Exhibition held under the auspices of the Committee on the Congestion of Population and the Municipal Art Society, an organization will shortly be effected to secure a city plan for New York. Two special conferences were held, the first attended by representatives of some thirty organizations interested in civic, social, economic, political and artistic improvement; and the latter by representatives of fifty-five such organizations, who voted unanimously in favor of a permanent committee. This will comprise a president and five vice-presidents, one from each borough, none of whom is yet chosen. Benjamin C. Marsh will be executive secretary and George B. Ford corresponding secretary. The other officers will be announced shortly.

The committee is to study ways and means of securing a city commission to be appointed by the mayor, which can study and advise and have power to act in all matters relative to a definite city plan for New York. This body differs from previous city improvement commissions in that it will pay special attention to the hygienic and social sides of the question. When the committee has decided on a plan of action, it is to report to the general conference.

In the formation of the committee, the city planning exhibit as held at the Twenty-second Regiment Armory, has definitely accomplished the object for which it was intended,—that is, to put the study of city planning on a definite and permanent basis.

CONFERENCE ON STATUS OF NEGRO

A significant National Conference on the Status of the American Negro will be held in New York on May 31 and June

1. The morning and evening sessions on the first day will be open to the public. The subject of the first meeting will be *Race Prejudice Viewed from a Scientific Standpoint*, with William H. Ward presiding, and papers by Prof. Livingston Farrand of Columbia and Prof. Burt G. Wilder of Cornell, and discussion opened by Prof. John Dewey. The second session will be a public meeting at Cooper Union, with Judge Wendell P. Stafford of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia in the chair, and addresses by the Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones, Clarence Darrow, Prof. John Spencer Bassett, Rev. J. Milton Waldron and Prof. W. E. B. DuBois. The other sessions, which are not open to the public, have as their subjects, *The Civil and Political Status of the Negro*, *Industrial and Educational Status*, *The Negro and the Nation*. Among the speakers announced are Oswald Garrison Villard, Edwin D. Meade, the Rt. Rev. Alexander Walters, Mrs. Celia Parker Wooley, Leslie Pinckney Hill, Mrs. Ida Wells Barnett, William A. Sinclair, Dr. William Bulkley, Joseph C. Manning and Ray Stannard Baker.

The conference, it is expected, will tackle its ticklish subject with the well-informed breadth of view exemplified by a timely article in the May *World's Work* by Professor DuBois on *Georgia Negroes and Their Fifty Millions of Savings*. In spite of bank failures and defalcations and every possible discouragement, the Georgia blacks have saved money and bought land. Emancipation, in 1863, "spelled poverty, complete and dire poverty, to the black man who for the first time was thrown on his own resources." The state helped a little at first, providing work and some cheap land, but soon gave it up, leaving the Negro to fight his way. In forty-four years he gained and held property assessed at twenty-five million dollars, probably worth twice as much at market rates. Negroes own one-twenty-fourth of the soil of the state, and one-twentieth of the cultivated land—a total of 1,420,888 acres, or 2,220 square miles—more than the whole state of Delaware. The number of landholders is

increasing, the value of their farms rising, more live stock and better tools are used—the Negro farmer is coming up in spite of everything. Other industrial classes are considered and out of it all Professor DuBois concludes that “these figures are absolute proof of nothing, but they are certainly hopeful. If they teach anything, they teach that the tendency to save, here manifest, should be encouraged. It is not being encouraged today. . . . What the Negro needs and what the South needs are postal savings banks.”

RESULTS OF A DRY YEAR

For a year now Worcester, Mass., has been without a saloon. It is the first city of more than 100,000 population to vote no-license twice in succession and the first to apply local option on such a scale. Cities larger than Worcester are “dry,” but under a state prohibition law. Other cities have been without saloons for a longer period, notably Cambridge with a record of twenty-two liquorless years, but conditions have been quite

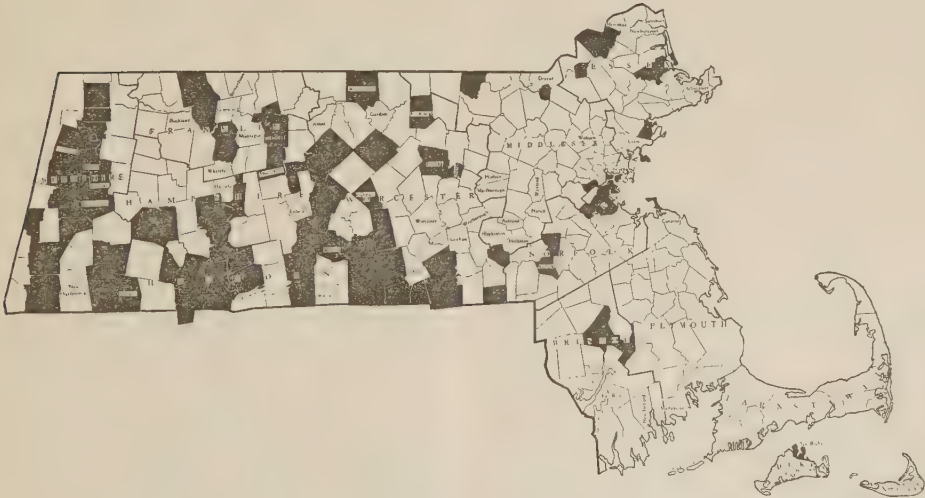
different. Worcester is in the very heart of a large local option territory; Cambridge conveniently near the saloons of Boston.

The Massachusetts No-License League has issued a summary of the past year in Worcester. Arrests have greatly declined—for drunkenness from 3,924 to 1,843; for assault and battery from 382 to 263; for larceny from 343 to 255; for neglect and non-support from 112 to 87; for disturbing the peace from 210 to 109. Patients in the alcoholic ward at the city hospital decreased from 274 to 144, and deaths from alcoholism from 30 to 6. The report points out that the city's total deaths from all causes were 2,560 as against 2,120 the year before, “which may be a mere coincidence.”

A special squad of eight police has watched over illegal sale of intoxicants. 381 arrests were made, and 346 brought to trial. Of these, 51 were discharged, 241 convicted, and some cases are pending. 29 have served jail sentences. 2,625 search warrants were issued during the year and some places raided a dozen times to secure sufficient evidence.

THE NEW GEOGRAPHY.

BLACK, LICENSE; WHITE, NO-LICENSE.



A generation ago children were taught that “Massachusetts is bounded on the north by Vermont and New Hampshire, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Connecticut, and on the west by New York. The capital is Boston on the Charles.” To-day they recite that “Massachusetts has 20 cities and 261 towns no-license to 13 cities and 60 towns license, a gain of 8 cities and 14 towns by a majority vote of 40,558 since May 1, 1906. Boston, the capital, has saloons, but Worcester is the largest dry city in the world.”

Apparently liquor selling will be entirely discontinued the coming year, except for "original packages" shipped in. Some of the saloons kept open a part of the first year, selling soft drinks, but they all closed when the city voted "no" the second time. Eight liquor licenses held by drug stores resulted in a recorded sale of 96,190 "packages"—one-quarter of them quart bottles, most of the remainder half-pints. Only one of these licenses was renewed for this year. It was offered to the druggist whose liquor sales had been smallest, but he refused it.

The largest manufacturers of Worcester are quoted in favor of no-license. Letters to leading business men produced 107 replies in favor of no-license, fourteen opposed and twenty-four non-committal. Suburban grocers, and in fact small dealers generally, have found their trade improved. They believe that workingmen's wives have more money to spend. Large grocers and provision dealers, on the other hand, have suffered a substantial loss in the reduced orders of hotels and saloons.

A PEOPLE'S COLLEGE FOR MASSACHUSETTS

A unique educational institution, to be known as Massachusetts College, is in a fair way of being established by the Legislature. Through it a plan is proposed for taking a college education to the door of practically every home in Massachusetts, thus bringing it within the means of many who cannot afford either time or money to attend a regular college. The plan in the main will be to send men to give courses of instruction in many parts of the state. Centers will be established in state normal schools and municipal school buildings which now for a great portion of each year are idle. By the terms of the bill the college is not to be established until \$600,000 has been subscribed for it, but there is little doubt of its financial success, as Edmund D. Barbour, its main promoter, has practically guaranteed five times the required sum as soon as a working basis is reached.

The plan proposes a self-perpetuating

board of trustees with power to appoint all officers and instructors and determine their salaries, arrange courses of study and "confer the degrees of bachelor of arts and master of arts and such certificates and diplomas, except medical certificates and diplomas, as are granted or conferred by any university, college or seminary of learning in this commonwealth." There is to be a general board of advisers made up of all ex-governors of Massachusetts, superintendents of schools in the various centers, the president of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, the presidents or their representatives of seventeen universities, colleges and institutes in the state and any others whom the trustees may appoint. A special board composed of representatives of the seventeen colleges with not more than fifteen others is to pass upon the qualifications required for degrees. The movement has met with considerable opposition on the ground that home work of the kind contemplated does not offer a satisfactory basis upon which to found degrees. Since the bill as it stands now gives existing colleges control of the board granting degrees, this argument is believed to have little weight and the bill is moving along encouragingly toward passage.

THE CHICAGO SUMMER SCHOOL

The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy offers three courses for the six weeks' summer session, June 22 to July 30. The first, under the title *Present Aspects of Social Movements*, will be conducted by Prof. Graham Taylor with the assistance of special lecturers. It includes under *Prevention*, preventable disease, cruelty, degeneracy, delinquency and poverty; under *Amelioration*, the standard of living, the measure of relief and working conditions, and the co-operation between volunteer individuals and agencies with official organizations and methods will be emphasized; under *Reconstruction*, efforts along educational, recreative, municipal, legislative and ethical lines will be treated. Visits to many social and civic institutions and agencies

in Chicago will be made in connection with this course and conferences with specialists on their fields will be held.

The second course, on the Educational Value of Occupation, is especially adapted to increase the efficiency and resources of those in personal care of the insane and mentally defective in state institutions and elsewhere. As last summer, the course will be under the direction of Edward F. Worst, head of the Industrial Arts Department in the Chicago Normal School. This course was again demanded by the superintendents of all the institutions in Illinois, Nebraska, New York, Indiana and New Jersey, whose attendants profited so much by it last year.

The practical course for Playground Work is peculiarly fortunate in having for its director Edward B. DeGroot, who is in charge of playgrounds and gymnasiums in the South Park system in Chicago where the instruction and practice work will be given. With the full use of the most elaborate playground equipment in the world this course affords unusual advantages to those interested in or preparing for playground work.

NEW POSITION FOR HOWARD S. BRAUCHER

Howard S. Braucher, secretary of the Associated Charities of Portland, Maine, has been appointed secretary of the Playground Association of America. He will take general executive charge on September 1. Henry S. Curtis, whose term of office as secretary of the association has expired, has been elected second vice-president.

Mr. Braucher was graduated from the Lockport, N. Y., High School in 1899 and from Cornell University in 1903. From 1903 to 1905 he attended the Union Theological Seminary and Columbia University, and in the summer of 1904 he took the course at the New York School of Philanthropy. In 1905 he became general secretary of the Associated Charities of Portland. The office was immediately reorganized on a broad basis, beginning with an annual budget of \$2,250. This amount has since been increased to nearly, if not quite, \$3,500.



HOWARD S. BRAUCHER.

During Mr. Braucher's administration, the charity work of Portland, both public and private, underwent a transformation in accordance with the new ideas of philanthropy, which has resulted in co-operation between relief societies and churches. Public outdoor relief through the overseers of the poor, which is now subject to the investigation and recommendation of the Associated Charities, has been greatly reduced. The number of dependent families for the city which was four years ago approximately 1,500, is now less than 800, and is decreasing. A large body of friendly visitors has been enlisted in constructive work with families.

Mr. Braucher has been active in the Economic Club and the Civic Club of Portland and instrumental in developing school houses and yards as neighborhood centers. His work in Maine has been valuable to the public and private charities of the entire state. He was foremost in organizing the State Conference of Charities and Correction and has been

a leader in the fight for a state board. He has been prominent also in a movement for placing the care of Maine's dependent children upon a basis in harmony with the recent White House conference.

PURE MILK FOR BOSTON

The Committee on Modified Milk, Boston, which has for several years successfully distributed a large quantity of modified milk to poor mothers with healthy children who require artificial food, has undertaken to reorganize its work in order to meet the situation more adequately, which is best expressed by the fact that 750 babies die in Boston during each summer period from June to November through improper feeding and care. Walter E. Kruesi has been engaged to organize and direct the committee until fall.

The work of the present nine stations will be improved, standardized, correlated, and brought under proper supervision. A plan will be made for increased number and proper situation of stations, and possibly for sub-stations. It is hoped to provide a nurse as supervisor of each of the main stations, so that every mother obtaining milk from the committee will have trained assistance and direction to insure proper conditions and care for her child. The committee proposes to use only certified milk, and further to sell clean milk to mothers who are nursing their own babies, or for the nourishment of the mothers whose infants are receiving modified milk.

Educational work by press service, lectures and discussions will be undertaken under the auspices of local committees. Material will be furnished to ministers, and other public leaders, and circulars will be distributed through physicians, congregations, and the mail. Special nurses will deal with the mother and regular classes of mothers will receive milk, under direction of local physicians supervised by the physicians of the committee.

A. M. WILSON RETURNS TO BOSTON

The secretaryship of the Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tu-

berculosis which Mr. Kruesi resigns to begin the new pure milk campaign, will be resumed by Alexander M. Wilson who held it from 1904 to 1908. He is welcomed by many friends and fellow workers in Boston where his organization of tuberculosis work set standards for other communities. Mr. Wilson went to Chicago as superintendent of the Tuberculosis Institute at its organization, later becoming general superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities when Ernest P. Bicknell resigned that position to become director of the National Red Cross. Mr. Wilson took the new place on the understanding that every effort would be made to bring to early fruition the long standing plans for uniting the Bureau of Charities and the Relief and Aid Society. This was shortly accomplished. The work once organized, Mr. Wilson felt it unfair to weigh down the new United Charities with two executives. As Sherman C. Kingsley's term of service in Chicago long preceded his, he resigned.

The Boston Tuberculosis Association plans new and broadened work under him. A gift of twenty acres of land to supplement other camps, sanatoriums and hospitals will be made an experiment station for developing most interesting new features of tuberculosis work. One plan, for instance, is to use a part of it as an out-of-door sleeping place for patients who have returned cured from the State Sanatorium and are supporting themselves by their usual work during the day. The very fact that Boston is better supplied with the ordinary type of tuberculosis institution than any other community, makes it the logical place for trying out new plans and modes of attack which, when proven successful, will be available for the whole country.

AS OTHERS SEE US¹

Reviewed by OWEN R. LOVEJOY

Who, except John Graham Brooks would ever think of going through all the pictures and caricatures of America

¹As Others See Us, John Graham Brooks, New York, Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 365. Price \$1.75. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.

that have been furnished by "foreigners" during two centuries? Yet the product of his research constitutes so charming a mirror that the reviewer was deterred only by poverty of time and means from rushing to the book-store to purchase the whole collection. The volume which first appeared in *The Chautauquan* is written in the familiar style which characterizes the author, and his sense of humor finds wide play in an analysis of some of the more patent criticisms which have frequently aroused the indignation and resentment of the American people. The chapters on Our Talent for Bragging, American Sensitiveness, Our Monopoly of Wit, and Some Other Peculiarities are delicious to one sufficiently free from provincialism to see the situation dispassionately.

But the real purpose of the author is revealed in the sub-title of the volume *A Study of Progress*, and while he does not shrink from reproducing in their strongest terms the strictures of Miss Martineau, Mrs. Trollope, Charles Dickens and other of the earlier critics, his summary of the foreign comments is: "With specific exceptions, it is a story extremely chilling to the pessimist. It is, upon the whole, a story which gives the lie to a thousand dire prophecies that the people cannot learn self-government. It is above all a story that puts new vitality and interest into our home problems."

To the student of American institutions, especially of the development of American democracy, the author's analysis of the studies of de Tocqueville and Mr. Bryce (to whom the volume is dedicated) will have the deepest interest. Combatants on both sides in the controversy between government by the few and government by the many have long used de Tocqueville as a principal weapon, those on the one hand reiterating his praises of democracy, those on the other quoting his fear of the dangers of popular government. But the author, we believe with fairness, says:

In spite of all that frightens him in the actual working of our institutions, his eye is steadily fixed upon the disciplinary value of an entire people exercising a free choice on all that determines their destinies. If

the race is ever to be educated to self-government, it must be through the reaction of consequences of right and wrong acts. He speaks of "this perilous liberty," yet sees that already, as he compares us with Europe, the balance is on our side.

We are aware that many of the vices of the people which would otherwise be suppressed are brought to the surface by this exercise of a universal participation in government, but we believe the author is right in contending that in this is our safety. No doubt we overthrow, sometimes with irreverence and shameful haste, what Mrs. Trollope called "established habits and solid principles," but it appears increasingly evident that the American people are willing to incur the danger to which she points when she says: "If they forego these, they will incur the fearful risks of breaking up their repose by introducing the jarring tumult and universal degradation which invariably follow the wild scheme of placing all the power of the state in the hands of the populace."

Some readers will doubtless be shocked to learn that we are not the funniest people in the world, that the American is not the universal "hustler" we have believed him to be, that "foreigners" have a keen sense of humor and sometimes look upon our "funny-papers" as lacking in humor, that the European nations are not dying out, that their political life is not exclusively corrupt, that Americans are not the only "free people" and that in many respects we may still learn from older civilizations lessons of practical value in the development of our political, educational, ethical and material resources. It will be shocking for those accustomed to praise everyone in political life to hear our greatest critic, Mr. Bryce, say: "It is a most humiliating fact that the House of Representatives is the most cowardly political body in the United States. It is not even equal to the ordinary state legislature. The ordinary congressman when he is elected gets the notion that there is a career before him. It is almost impossible to get any member of Congress to vote against any proposition that seems to imperil his chances of return." But the breadth of

view with which intelligent people in this country will receive such a criticism is indicated by the admiration in which this critic is held and the eagerness with which his views are sought on all public questions. Mr. Brooks says that the net judgment of Mr. Bryce's profound study is "doggedly hopeful."

Space forbids even a brief discussion of the excellent chapter devoted to an analysis of Prof. Hugo Münsterberg's *American Traits* or of the more recent criticisms of the popular socialist critic, H. G. Wells, who is horrified that American socialists, in view of the present controlling power of the "capitalists" over politics should be seeking to put the whole machinery of industry in the hands of the politicians by establishing the economic commonwealth. Another contention of Mr. Wells is that "the American community is discovering a secular extinction of opportunity and the appearance of powers against which individual enterprise and competition are hopeless."

The closing fifty pages of the volume are devoted to what the author calls "signs of progress." It is not the popular recitation of the glories of America or a catalog of the individual and collective virtues by which political orators are accustomed to proclaim this "the greatest country God ever made," but it is a shrewd analysis of the struggles through which we have passed in working out some of the difficult problems of our national life. The author lays bare many of our political and economic diseases and justifies the discerning criticisms of our serious European students. He shows how our real national life began after the dismal efforts at "reconstruction" following the Civil War, and foresees great struggles in the near future if America is to become a land of anything approaching ideal opportunity. He says:

If less desperate, the struggle before us will be as long as that against the other slavery. It will weigh men in the balance, even as it did then. It will call forth the

noble heroism and, alas! also the cringing cowardice which selfish idolatries always engender. None of us will escape the test. The church, the college, the press, will no more avoid it than the politician or the man in the street.

It is progress to be awakened to the facts, to have begun the struggle is further progress. The one hope of it all is to realize that the main work has yet to be done.

We realize that multitudes of people in this country accept existing conditions as divinely appointed and look upon any suggested change with horror. The author is right in saying that "to show independence or to stand for some larger policy has ever brought out the reproach of being un-American." But it is gratifying to know that the army of unrest grows steadily; that not by revolutionary conflicts, but by the more or less orderly development of social evolution problems of our political destiny are being pushed toward their solution, and we are sure that all serious students will endorse the author's definition when he says: "The best Americans have ever been and will continue to be those who, while standing for social stability and order, dare to stand also for the changes that widen into social progress" (p. 59).

One of the most valuable features of the volume is an exhaustive index of eleven pages, by means of which the student will find ready access to many hundred distinct topics. It is not the mission of the reviewer to praise, but we cannot refrain from urging that the volume should be at the earliest moment in the hands of two classes of people: first, those who contemplate a journey to another country, either for the purpose of pleasure, or study; second, those who intend to stay at home, either from choice or from necessity. The first class will find the volume a delightful traveling companion and a guide to intelligent observation. The second will find it a most entertaining text book in a study of American life and institutions.

SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS

A CIRCUIT RIDER IN THE HUMANITIES

PAUL U. KELLOGG

In his verses on Life and Song, Sidney Lanier lamented that the singer had not yet come, who should wholly live his minstrelsy—live it as if life were caught by a clarionet and its heart were utterly bodied forth in the throbbing of the reed. The Oratorio Society and the Prison Association of New York united the evening of May 27 at Mendelssohn Hall in a service commemorative of the life of Samuel June Barrows. The splendid choruses in which he had lifted up his voice for years were interspersed by addresses telling of him as the helper of prisoners, the lover of letters, the lover of justice, the man of peace, the shepherd of souls. These are so many aspects of a life, long and full, which had loosened many of those fetters that bind men to misery (such as crime, bigotry, war and race hatred) and which, in turn, had forged strong, radiant links with music and the other joys of creation. For it was more nearly true of him, than of most men, that "his song was only living aloud; his work, a singing with his hand."

Mr. Barrows died of pneumonia on April 21 at the Presbyterian Hospital, New York. The illness came upon him suddenly in the flood-tide of the year's work; and his very loyalty to the public duties thick upon him, made him loath to be reconciled and to lay them down. "I think it is hard to die like a saint," he said, "I am content to die without a

crown, just as a decent man." In that way, also, had he lived, simply, unpretendingly, just as a decent man. Yet the International Prison Congress, when it assembles in Washington in 1910, will meet without its elected president—the first American to be called to the chair of this world's conference. Delegates, speaking various tongues and standing high in the counsels of the great governments, will mourn not only a fellow member but a friend, as intimate and personal to them as to the boys of an East

Side night school fifty years ago, who without leave or precedent gave "nine cheers for Barrows" when he left their class. And convicts in the great prisons of Eastern Europe, shuffling Negroes in the chain gangs of the South, parolemen granted a new chance in life by Australian law he had influenced, chil-

dren before the new juvenile courts of France, sick men in the disease-beset cell-blocks of our older penitentiaries, young offenders locked in with the hardened rounders of obscure county jails—all these also lost a friend, as surely as their lot, and that of their kind for generations to come, is bound to be influenced by the things he substantially advanced.

Mr. Barrows's last piece of self-sacrifice was for such a one—in prison—to be visited though it were to the ends of the world. In March, Mrs. Barrows had set out for St. Petersburg, in behalf

THE WIRELESS MESSAGE

Electric pulses through the viewless air
Pitched to some distant tone,
With ardent zeal their voiceless message bear
Through the ethereal zone,
And at some tuned, receptive point remote,
They find their kindred note.

Self-poised on high the towers of the soul
Some distant message wait.
Magnetic pulses speed from pole to pole,
Swift to affiliate:
But thou, my soul, to gain this wished-for boon,
Must keep thyself in tune.

Love flashes in the open, shoreless sky,
Pathway of God and man,
The burning question and the swift reply.
Shall I the message scan?
And shall I find as these swift pulses dart
Some message for my heart?

of Madame Breshkovsky, one of the heroic noblewomen of the Russian revolutionary movement, who, in her seventieth year, lies sick in the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul. "I should be glad to give my life for Babushka," he said, as his wife started alone on this emergent mission to Russia, "and would count it well spent. I cannot go; I think you should go." The cables carried word of his sickness to Mrs. Barrows, but the fastest steamers were unable to bring the wife back to her own until after his death. We may be sure, however, that there was communion between them—such answering chords of the spirit as found expression in the stanzas on the preceding page which he had written, half-prophetically it would seem now, when they were last on the ocean together.

Separated at death, in life, Mr. and Mrs. Barrows have been so truly at one, that a review, however brief, of the work of either must have much of the character of a joint biography. Their collaboration on a volume of reminiscences is one of the plans whose fulfillment his death came to prevent. This sharing of life work together was the more remarkable because of the great variety of experience which he, as few men, got out of his generation. Here was a man who campaigned in the Indian country, and was a peace advocate; who dug up Greek temples and pulled down old jails; who as a linguist mastered the harshest consonants of the nations, and as a sweet singer sang oratorios, and wrote ballads; here was a newspaper correspondent, preacher, editor, stenographer, penologist, parliamentary leader, poet and humanitarian.

Mr. Barrows was born May 26, 1845, on the lower East Side, New York. He was a child when his father died after a protracted sickness. The first years were of utter poverty. His mother made a living for herself and her four children by making shoe-blackening after an old English recipe. At eight years he went to work as an office boy in the printing press works of R. Hoe and Company. He worked ten hours a day; his wages were a dollar a week; Sundays he listened through three heavy sermons; evenings

he went to night classes; and one year his employer let his wages go on while the boy attended day school. Colonel Hoe was a friend of Morse, the inventor of the telegraph, and the first private wire in the world was strung to his factory. Twelve-year-old Samuel Barrows operated it. The boy also studied shorthand, and throughout his life was an expert stenographer.¹ During the war he attempted to enlist in the navy but was thrown out on account of health; and to retrieve the drains in strength which overwork since childhood had made upon him, he took a position as secretary with Dr. Jackson of the Dansville Sanitarium. It was there that he met Isabel Hayes Chapin who was equipping herself as a medical missionary to return to India, whither she had gone as a bride of eighteen and where her husband had died. Mr. and Mrs. Barrows were married June 28, 1867. They were twenty-two; they had no money; but they were rich in purpose, and with rare courage and mutual helpfulness set about a larger preparation for the work of life.

While Mrs. Barrows completed her medical studies—those were the days when women students were pelted and ridiculed—Mr. Barrows served as a reporter on the New York *Tribune*, and for a summer as city editor on the New York *World*, then a religious daily. In 1868 he was appointed stenographic secretary to William H. Seward and remained in the Department of State until 1874. At one time he fell ill with typhoid and Mrs. Barrows took his post, the first woman employed in the department. During this period, she completed her medical studies by a year at Vienna, specializing in the eye. Returning to this country she opened an office in Washington, the first oculist at the na-

¹Mr. and Mrs. Barrows accomplished jointly what had never been done before—the first verbatim report of one of Phillips Brooks's rapid sermons. Mrs. Barrows has translated mentally addresses in German by Carl Schurz and taken them down in English while in process of delivery. For twenty years she was official reporter and editor of the proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and has served various international conventions in similar capacity, inscribing her notes in whatever language was spoken. Post cards marked with pot hooks by husband or wife carried more intelligence to the other than long letters between less gifted correspondents.

tional capital. She taught also in Howard Medical School.

Mr. Barrows had studied out of hours at Columbian University (exchanging shorthand for Latin and Greek) and was now enabled to complete his own professional education. He entered Harvard Divinity School and graduated in 1874 (B. D.). Those were the years when Agassiz was delivering his famous lectures in natural science at Cambridge, and every Sunday the *New York Tribune* reported them at a page in length. The work was done by Mr. and Mrs. Barrows, and their reports were made up by Agassiz into a book.

During the summers of 1873 and 1874, the divinity student was with General Custer on the Yellowstone and in the Black Hills as correspondent for the *Tribune*. His summers were full of adventure: he was the first to report the discovery of gold in the Black Hills, a bullet struck a tree just above his head, and he narrowly escaped an ambush in which his companion was killed. By good fortune he did not set out the next season—that of the massacre—but with Mrs. Barrows spent the year in post-graduate studies at Leipzig. Returning to this country, he was made minister of the First Parish, Dorchester, Mass. Four years later he became editor of *The Christian Register*, making that Unitarian journal a national force during the decades of the great church weeklies. In 1897 he was elected to the Fifty-fifth Congress, a republican from a heavily democratic district which had been outraged by a corrupt incumbent. His first success was in securing from Congress permission to send ships to India loaded with grain for the famine sufferers; his chief speech was perhaps one in favor of admitting books and works of art free of duty;—again that balance which has been pointed out as characteristic of the compelling interests in his life. His congressional career was short—one term—but during that time he was instrumental in associating the American Congress with the parliaments of the world. He was the first American to join the Inter-parliamentary Union, and ten years later was the active member of the committee

in charge of the St. Louis meeting which brought here representatives of the legislative assemblies of all civilization.

Mr. Barrows's retirement from Washington marked the maturing of his larger work for prison reform. He had been one of the founders of the Massachusetts Prison Association and had helped develop the probation system in that state. In 1896 he was appointed by President Cleveland commissioner for the United States on the International Prison Commission, serving since then on its executive committee and representing the United States at the quinquennial congresses in Paris, Brussels, and Budapest. At the last congress he was elected president. It was through his efforts that the congress of 1910 is to be held in Washington. Mr. Barrows was instrumental in securing a federal appropriation of \$20,000 for this congress, and the major work of preparation has been done by him. With Mrs. Barrows he had planned a tour this summer of the South American republics to enlist their interest in the Washington gathering.

In 1899 Mr. Barrows was appointed corresponding secretary of the Prison Association of New York, and for ten years his influence for progress and breadth of view in penal legislation has been cumulative in both state and nation. It has been marked by repeated assaults on the stupid blunder of capital punishment, by his ready recognition of the juvenile court idea, his energetic attacks upon systems of prison idleness, and his unswerving support of the reformatory movement, probation and parole. These have been linked with a grasp of the technical side of prison construction and management. He was a member of the New York State Probation Commission of 1905-6, and of the present State Commission on New Prisons which is charged with the task of replacing old, disease-ridden Sing Sing with a modern structure. To this end Mr. Barrows visited Great Britain, Sweden, Finland, Russia, Germany, France, Spain and Portugal. Some of the best energies of the last years of his life were devoted, against domineering political opposition, to secure the embodiment in the new institution of some of the standards

set by modern European prisons. At the present session of the New York Legislature, in co-operation with the State Prison Commission, his association strongly urged the establishment of three state workhouses and a reformatory for youthful misdemeanants. When taken sick, he was in Albany in support of bills to make the office of sheriff of Queens county, New York, a salaried one, to establish a board of trustees of labor colonies for the detention, reformation and instruction of persons convicted of vagrancy, drunkenness, etc., and to establish the "John Howard Industrial School" for the educational, industrial, and moral instruction of juvenile delinquents. In behalf of the latter measure, in a report drafted for the Prison Association of New York, and released for publication one week before his death, he made this appeal:

The poor boy in New York is pretty well taken care of and so is the youthful felon. But the youthful misdemeanant has been overlooked.

It is appalling to think that by a process of legal indifference and neglect a boy may be sent for six months or a year to a jail where he comes into the most degraded society, where he is without work and without schooling, except the deplorable schooling in crime furnished by older and hardened offenders. A few figures from the official reports of the State Commission of Prisons show how imperative is the need. The number of boys from sixteen to twenty-one sentenced to jails and penitentiaries for the past year outside of Greater New York was 4,428 and the number of the same age sentenced in New York city was 14,044, a total of 18,472. In addition more than 10,000 between the ages of twenty-one and thirty, are likewise sentenced to the jails and penitentiaries.

The passage is cited because of its timely bearing, although it is not representative of the lofty utterances which found place in many of Mr. Barrows's speeches and writings, nor of those less frequent instances in which indignation mounted over his persistent kindness. Then he spoke the wrath that was in him at the continuation of conditions that sicken and besot humanity. His public arraignment was of methods and institutions rather than of men. He was a staunch fighter of the iniquitous fee system, and though he succeeded in having

it abolished in many counties in New York state, those who love him best feel that he fell a victim to his warfare in behalf of this cause. His last letter, written from Albany the day he was taken ill, told how men in both parties were leagued against him (for the shriev-alty has been one of the prizes in county politics and must be rooted out one county at a time); but said that he was determined to fight till the end to free Queens county, one of the strongholds of the system. Hundreds of impressionable first offenders, who ought to be placed on probation or in the reformatories, are held in the old Long Island jail because of the profit in their keep. There is a solemn indictment in the circumstances of his death, which those who are responsible for blocking the reforms for which he stood, must settle with their consciences as best they may,—those who discounted the disease and criminality bred in such conditions, and saw only an office for the fall elections, and such fees as have made men rich. And there is a challenge in the circumstances of his death to younger men to carry forward the causes that laid such compelling hold upon his last strength.

In his federal capacity, Mr. Barrows did much work with the Department of Justice toward a revision of the penal law of the United States. He was identified with bills before the last Congress, providing for the parole of United States prisoners, for the appointment of probation officers and the suspension of sentence in United States courts, and for a revision of the statutes relating to the commitment of United States prisoners to reformatories of states. He was tremendously interested in the work of the local commission, which reported in January on the jail, workhouse, etc., in the District of Columbia and which recommended the establishment of a model system for the national capital.

Mr. Barrows's services were not restricted to either New York or the federal government. They were at the call of prison reform in every state. This was illustrated in his long volunteer work as departmental editor on the treatment of the delinquent for *Charities Review*,

Charities and The Commons, and *THE SURVEY*, involving, as it did, a large investment of time and interest. He was repeatedly chairman of committees of the National Prison Association, and the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Among recent undertakings, mention should be made of his work on the committee which has aroused local interest throughout the country in the sanitary conditions of jails. He drafted the reformatory law and probation law for the new state of Oklahoma, addressing the Legislature last year in their behalf. Last fall he addressed three state conferences on the Pacific Coast and visited penal institutions from San Diego to Seattle. In January, he made three addresses to help arouse public sentiment in Milwaukee against its house of correction.

Through reports prepared for the International Prison Commission his work as circuit rider in penology finds permanent form and has been circulated in many countries. There have been fifteen of these titles, including reports on the Criminal Insane in the United States and Foreign Countries, the Indeterminate Sentence and Parole Law, the Reformatory System in the United States, Penal Codes of France, Germany, Belgium, and Japan, Modern Prison Systems, New Legislation Concerning Crimes and Misdemeanors, Growth of the Criminal Law, and Children's Courts of the United States. Mr. Barrows made these reports, together with his biennial trips to Europe as American prison commissioner, responsible to the Department of State, a basis for what was in truth a rare diplomatic service—an informal ambassadorship to all nations in the cause of enlightened justice. Take, for instance, two letters received (since his death) in the same day's mail. One, from Tasmania, tells how primitive is the prison system there, what great changes will have to be made before it can truly be reformatory. It adds that the system set forth in the New York association's report sent by Mr. Barrows will largely form the key to the improvements advocated. "You have given me fresh courage in this, my life

work, and strength to carry it on," the writer says. "You little know how far into the future your kindness will reach." The second letter is from an official of the Transvaal Prison Department, who had received counsel and copies of reports from Mr. Barrows, and who had given them wider influence by lending the reports in many quarters, "where they would be more eloquent than I," and making them available for the press. The writer says:

It is clear that American methods find greatest favor here and we trust in the future that we shall be able to keep in touch with the United States and learn what is taking place. When I tell you that since my first letter to you, we have a reformatory in full working order and classification in all the large prisons, and that this session of Parliament will see introduced the principles of indeterminate sentence, parole and probation and other improvements in the treatment of juvenile delinquents, you will see that your action in sending me your books was not entirely in vain.

Space forbids excursions into the other fields of interest which Mr. Barrows explored with such keen zest throughout his life. His religious experience began with folded arms beneath the teacher's quick rattan in the old Cannon Street Church, as related in his book, *A Baptist Meeting-House*. Soon after his majority he became a Unitarian, and what a friend has called his "incessant helpfulness" was but a practical living out of the catholicity of his faith. Margaret Deland drew not a little of the material for her novel, *John Ward, Preacher*, from his early book, *The Doom of the Majority of Mankind*, and a recent anonymous article in *The Independent*, *The Church I Am Looking For*, provoked much discussion. The writer had looked for a vineyard to work in; instead they had set him to building fences. He was a strong advocate in the peace movement, a leader in the Mohonk conferences on the Negroes, Indians, and International Arbitration, and in each of these fields took a life-long and active interest. It was Howard University (colored) which granted him the degree of doctor of divinity in 1897. He was a frequent editorial contributor to magazines, notably *The Outlook* and *The In-*

dependent, his writings showing both a constructive earnestness and an inimitable humor. This last year he prepared a series of articles for *The Outlook* on the temperance movement and became a formidable figure in the new discussion of the liquor question. His readiness to assume emergent tasks in addition to his serene mastery of routine responsibilities was illustrated in the winter of 1907-8, when he acted as executive secretary of the Russian Famine Relief Committee, which collected over \$50,000 in this country.

A hundred stories could be told of the approachableness and ineffable sympathy of the man. "You need not be afraid to disturb me by writing upon this subject", was his answer to a letter from an unknown questioner. "I am always deeply interested in having something done." He taught a new play at jack-stones to the newsboys at the corner where he took the car. Later, one of them nudged a playfellow, as Mr. Barrows passed on the street. "There he goes," he overheard, "there's the feller that introduced 'skunks' into Dorchester." But neither his ever-present sympathy, nor his patient reluctance to retort in the face of opposition or attack, nor the glamor of philosophy which shone in his face, was cloak for inaction. He was the fastest horseman in his Massachusetts regiment. As a youth, in the days of the draft riots, he stamped out the firebrands which a mob had thrown into a store they were about to loot. As a reporter, he made some of the famous "beats" of his day—one, a great wreck on the Atlantic Coast, and another, a New Jersey hanging. The execution was delayed until a late hour and, when the correspondents posted to the telegraph office, they found it closed. Barrows connected the wire which had been cut off and sent his message in with his own hands—the only one to reach New York in time for press.

A member of the Handel and Haydn Society, in Boston, he became a member and director of the Oratorio Society in New York. He learned the piano at fifty, and at the time of his death was practicing two hours a day on the organ

at St. George's. He composed the words and music of many hymns, the harmony of an organ prelude, the lively music of such fancies as *The Echo Queen*, and *The Beacon Street Tramp*, a Panethnic philanthropic Play, which he wrote and took part in with much gaiety. He spoke French, German and Modern Greek, read Dutch and Italian and was learning Spanish for his South American trip. The address of the American commissioner in Hungarian was a feature of the great Budapest Prison Congress.

It was the life and culture of the Greeks which laid closest hold upon his hours of leisure and which has had artistic sequence in the work of his daughter, Mabel Hay Barrows Mussey, in reviving the Greek drama. Mr. Barrows spent a year in Greece with Dörpfeld, the famous German archæologist, and was with him when he dug up the Homeric city of Troy. He was the author of *The Isles and Shrines of Greece*. Homer was his heart's love, and at his summer home on Lake Memphremagog in lower Quebec, the first two hours after sunrise were given over to reading the new meaning of a student of peoples into the ancient lines. It was there in this camp started by the Shaybacks, as the Barrows had called themselves when they first explored the region thirty-three years before, at Cedar Lodge, and Cabin June, and Birchbay, that the marvellous family life of this American household found its amplest expression. Hoë, Seward, Agassiz, Phillips Brooks, Dörpfeld, Custer,—those were various men to mark a man's life intimately, and they but stand for a hundred other men of world-fame who counted him as their friend; but here about their open fires—and this is of greater meaning—"Uncle June" and "Aunt Isabel" have been in a very real sense foster parents to a company of children of the world, knowing no race, or creed, or color as not of kin. Here was an everyday embodiment of that universal sympathy, gentle, resistless, which marked his play, and work, and preaching—which made fraternalism the great tenet of his democracy and made the uncrowned decent living of this man at once

a harmony and a social force. Here was a man who fraternized in a full-blooded sense with the ancient Greeks, with the famine-lean peasants of the Volga provinces, with the prisoner of the meanest

jail, with the masters of music and art and government, with the God of the mountain peaks of his northern lake—"Nor time nor space nor deep nor high" could keep his own away from him.

THE CITY PLAN EXHIBITION

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON

ROCHESTER

Less than a month ago the remains of Major L'Enfant, the planner of Washington, removed from their former modest resting place, were laid with honor and pomp in the National Cemetery at Arlington; in the first week in May, in the presence of the president and his cabinet and of the justices of the Supreme Court, there was unveiled in Washington a statue in honor of "Boss" Shepherd, who, as the Haussmann of the capital, carried out the plans of which L'Enfant dreamed; on the day that the monument was unveiled, there opened in New York the first City Planning Exhibition ever held in the United States; and a week after its close, President Taft was to make the opening address at a national conference of city planners.

It is evident that a new and powerful municipal movement has fired the popular imagination. In that search for causes, which has as its object preventive as distinguished from remedial measures for the bettering of social conditions, the thought of the day is getting back to the city plan as fundamental. As a focus upon which had been converged, from many cities and many lands, various expressions and manifestations of this thought, the City Planning Exhibition in New York invited consideration. It is not the habit of Americans to take conclusions for granted. We believe, rightly or wrongly, that our social and economic problems are a little different from any other people's and we like to work out our own solutions. For this reason, while the exhibition carried the definite message that "every city needs a plan," its general character was tentative. It was a visible and sincere seeking for the truth that made it doubly interesting.

As is now well known, the exhibition, arranged under the joint auspices of the Committee on Congestion of Population and of the Municipal Art Society, was held in the Twenty-second Regiment Armory. Its value was greatly increased by the generous co-operation of city officials and departments. To New Yorkers there was probably never given before so good a chance intelligently "to know their city" as was afforded by this exhibition. As the chairman of the Municipal Art Society's committee said, the show constituted a strong plea for a permanent municipal exhibition.

As one entered the great hall, vast, barnlike and gloomy, there was little that was immediately attractive. A huge ornamental light, the first object to catch the eye, was in its way symbolical. Only as one got into the spirit of the show, seeking, and beginning to see, the light, did it prove really attractive. This would be one's first criticism: Devoted to city planning, the exhibition itself was poorly planned, needlessly ineffective, with no definite point where one should begin. In fact, the best point at which to begin was to the left instead of to the right. Behind the light, on a partition that faced the entrance, there were hung pictures of the Municipal Art Society's gifts to the city of New York. These photographs of mural decorations, in which were depicted the civic virtues and the fathers of the nation planning for its progress, were also, one could fancy, allegorical. The exhibition that stretched away behind them stood for just such things.

Back of this partition ran four long aisles. The second, numbering from the north, contained the exhibits of the Com-

mittee on Congestion of Population, and this was the keynote to the exhibits in the four aisles. For example, in the aisle to the north, given up to the Board of Education, to the State Charities Aid Association, and to some rather mislaid but exceptionally interesting and valuable social maps of Jersey City, a very striking exhibit was a card with these words: "No plan for the city; poor light for the schools. Shall we have windows or eyeglasses?" That was a terse summing up and thrusting of the question on the observer that, exemplified with like directness and force again and again throughout the exhibit, proved one of its most valuable features. For it is to be remembered in this connection that the purpose of such an exhibition is not simply to entertain men, but to make them think.

With the second aisle, that devoted to the Committee on Congestion of Population itself, one was in the very thick of the problem, for here were exhibits depicting the land system of a great American city. And this is fundamental. A mistake, perhaps, was to tell the observer so at the start. If he could have reached the conclusion himself, as he almost surely would have done from the exhibits, the effect would have been stronger. As it was, in turning into the aisle two cards with large letters at once caught the eye. One bore the words: "Taxation Is Democracy's Most Effective Method of Securing Social Justice;" the other, "If the City Secured by Taxation a Large Part of the Increase in Land Values, Congestion Would Lose Most of Its Charm." These immediately put the average man on the defensive. He feared he was getting into something socialistic, and, quite possibly having some interest in land and certainly in taxes, was on his guard. It was less easy after that to convince him. Now, there were not very many things about the exhibition as a whole to criticize, and it is unfortunate that the things that should be criticized were mainly at the beginning. The entrance to the hall was not inviting, and if one were so lucky as to begin his study of the exhibits at the right place, the opening impression was not propitious. These faults, however, were almost superficial

and could be easily corrected another time. After the start, the exhibits got hold of one with an intense interest that gripped and convinced; and no one after careful study of them could leave the hall without a clearer and larger vision of the subject, and a greater interest in it than he had had before. And to give these was exactly the exhibition's purpose.

The third of the four aisles directly opposite the entrance was devoted to exhibits depicting industrial conditions. There were the usual photographs showing pleasant factory surroundings at the National Cash Register plant in Dayton, at the Draper Company plant in Hopedale, Mass., at the Shredded Wheat factory at Niagara Falls, the General Electric works in Schenectady and the Westinghouse Air Brake Company's plant in Wilmerding. Then came charts showing the distribution of workers in the various boroughs of Greater New York and their terrible crowding in lower Manhattan. This revealed the two reasons most largely operative to be "accessibility to the New York market" and "large supply of labor." A large map of "the most congested district in the world" (New York, east of Broadway from Houston street south to South and Pearl streets) showed every house in which, according to official records, home work is carried on. Alongside of it, a map of the same district showed the houses in which the presence of infectious diseases had been reported. Then came a black-bordered sign with these words:

Without Town Planning
Similar Conditions
Will Be Produced in
All Industrial Cities.

Across the aisle, charts and photographs showed living conditions, and one realized that one was at the heart of a great problem.

Room-crowding, not only in houses, but in offices, was shown, and then a

chart revealed that if Manhattan below Chambers street were devoted to office buildings of the height of twenty-five stories, it would take 196.8 years for the buildings to be filled, assuming that the average demand would be accommodations for 4,500 persons a year, which is 400 more persons a year than were offered accommodations from 1902 to 1907. A card bore the significant and withering statement, "Most civilized cities of the world have a limit to the height of buildings." This little group of exhibits was interesting as typical of a few, scattered here and there, which, while impressive, seemed not to have been sufficiently carefully thought out. Apparently, a purpose of the quoted statistics was to convince the owner of property not directly in the skyscraper district that without height limitation it would be a long and weary wait before his property had a skyscraper value, and then to convince the general public that there was no congestion-creating peril involved in a reasonable height limitation, even for lower New York. But placed just where they were, directly following the exhibits of room-crowding, these statistics also suggested rather obviously a remedy for the latter. Could these exhibits have been accompanied by a representation of the probable traffic conditions, should such building as imagined take place, they would have carried more emphatically the message they were intended to carry and would not have suggested the other thought. In short, here was a good exhibit that lost effectiveness through lack of sufficient consideration and unfortunate placing. But there were surprisingly few such instances.

The fourth aisle was devoted to the Brooklyn Committee on Prevention of Tuberculosis — significant of the wide reach of city planning interests. A card headed, "Needed to Prevent Tuberculosis," had the following items and queries: "Fresh Air, Can you get it with a density of 500 to the acre? Rest, Is the hubbub of conducive to rest? Good Food, If the rent to maintain a decent standard takes from 25 per cent to 35 per cent of the family income, does not this," etc. Here in a nutshell was

the whole argument. If one had doubts as to the answers to the queries, the exhibits that followed at once dispelled them. Half way down their length, the two middle aisles were devoted for the rest of their extent to the exhibits of the Pittsburgh Survey. These are too well known to the readers of this magazine to need description. They had here, however, a new force, for now at least they plainly applied not to Pittsburgh alone. Supplementing the exhibits for New York, they startled one into appreciation of what degree of human wretchedness the growth of an industrial city may create if that growth be undirected, unguided by foresight and comprehensive outlook.

Turning back now to the beginning of the second of the aisles opposite the entrance, and sufficiently aroused to wish for remedies, one examined the land system exhibits of the congestion committee in more chastened and receptive mood. But it was so well to take the aisles in the order named, to secure this effectiveness of appeal, that it had been well if the order had been made inevitable. Merely a conspicuous numbering of the aisles would have helped to this result. The exhibits here were made up entirely of charts and diagrams. A large green square representing the 840 acres of Central Park was contrasted with a square of just one-eighty-fourth the size. The latter represented the ten acres distributed among three small East Side parks in New York which, purchased between 1895 and 1905, had cost the city almost exactly the same price as had the whole of Central Park, bought fifty years ago. A card adjoining said: "In the Bronx the city will ultimately need at least 3,000 acres. Assessed land values in the Bronx increased from 1907 to 1908 12.4 per cent. Will the city wait till the land is double the 1907 value before developing 'foresight'?" The next card noted that values in the borough of Richmond in the same year had increased 32.6 per cent. The same comment was too pertinent to require a repetition. And then, with great cleverness, came illustrations of the way in which England deals with like problems. The opening of the new

thoroughfare, Kingsway and Aldwich, from Holborn to the Strand, in London, was taken as an illustration. The city bought twenty-eight acres. It used $12\frac{1}{4}$ acres in the new streets, and the sale of the balance is expected to pay for the whole improvement, costly as it was. New York at the same time was expending \$8,500,000 for Delancey street improvements, with no recoupment. After these strikingly depicted contrasts, came maps showing the enormous tracts of inside, and especially of outside, land which have been acquired by German cities and by means of which speculation has been curbed. Across the aisle hung conspicuously this sign:

It Is Not a City's
Chief End to Be "*Stung*" by
Its Citizens and to Enjoy
It Forever.
But It Is a City's Chief End
to Provide the Best and
Most Healthful Condi-
tions for All Its Citizens,
and to Do This
It Must Have
A Town Plan for the Whole
City and an Efficient
Administration.

This seemed to sum up the teaching of the four aisles that led east from the entrance.

At right angles to these exhibits, and stretching across the end of the hall, were exhibits of city planning in foreign and American cities. The foreign cities came first. Very interesting was the statement regarding the plans for the enlargement of Berlin. These contemplate the addition of an area of 478,340 acres and a population of about 1,541,000. The plans deal with: First, traffic, in main and secondary highways and making provision for horse, bicycle and automobile conveyance; second, districting of the city, by which there are created distinct industrial, manufacturing, commercial and residential sections; third, parks and public reservations; fourth,

sites for public and even for semi-public buildings. Other maps, photographs and charts here showed conditions and projects of many German cities. The next aisle east was given up to the exhibits of housing conditions abroad prepared by the Pittsburgh Survey. Good and bad New York tenement conditions were shown in an adjacent section of the hall. In the next aisle the exhibits were mainly from England and Scotland—though for some reason the Philippines got into this group. A very large and interesting map of Glasgow gave not only the data, usual in a city map, but showed what new streets have been developed by widening, straightening, cutting through, etc.; what tenements and other buildings belong to the municipality; what land it holds still undeveloped—and these tracts, it was interesting to note, lie on the outskirts of the city on every side. The exhibits in these aisles must have surprised all who have not given special study to the subject by their revelation of the great lengths to which city planning, radical town improvement and the municipal ownership of land have been carried across the sea.

In the department devoted to city planning in American cities, plans and drawings were shown for proposed improvements for many cities from Honolulu to Boston. New York had a special aisle to itself, in which were shown the plans of the City Improvement Commission and many interesting maps and photographs from the Department of Docks and Ferries showing waterfront conditions and developments. Proposed solutions of traffic problems—passenger and freight—were shown, and a chart of special interest, in view of what had gone before, was entitled, "Bronx Planning." This showed seven avenues that just miss connection, "no vistas, no well-shaped open spaces, no sightly places for public buildings—a natural civic center in which every opportunity is lost." A million-dollar court house is being erected there on a site that appears to the maker of the map to need no other condemnation and anathema than its accurate depiction. Some very striking maps and charts in this section, furnished by the Civic League of the Bronx, illustrated the ad-

vance of the high tenement into that borough. By this time in his study of the exhibition, no loyal New Yorker, or, indeed, American, could leave the hall with a smug and comfortable feeling as to the future of urban life under the conditions now usual.

Then came an aisle devoted to subway and sewage matters. An exhibit of exceptional interest here was the great map of New York prepared by the bureau of franchises of the Public Service Commission. This showed railroads, street railways and subways, time distances from the City Hall, the distribution of population and comparative land values—improvements not being taken into account. Vast areas in Queens and the Bronx were colored to show a value vaguely stated as "under \$50 a front foot" for lots of standard size. In other parts of the city the colors indicated a value exceeding \$12,000 a front foot. Inevitably one's mind went back to the charts and legends in the congestion committee's exhibit.

The exhibits in the last aisle east, which very likely many persons missed, were among the most important and interesting in the whole show. These were the rapid transit exhibits prepared by the City Club, and the explanation of the method the club proposes for financing the needed new roads. Briefly stated, the idea is this: When a line is to be built, two time-zone maps of the district to be served should be prepared. One would show the present time consumed in reaching from a central point, as the City Hall, every place in the district; the other, the time that would be needed when the road is in operation. Then each owner of property in the district should be assessed for the new road in proportion to the saving of time it will effect in reaching his property, the amount being reduced as the total time increases. Charts showing the jump in real estate value when transit facilities are provided were the scheme's justification.

The remaining half of the hall—that is, the south and west sides—were mainly given up to those ornamental aspects of city development in which the Municipal Art Society feels a special interest.

Exceptionally large and valuable were the exhibits in this department of street lighting apparatus and of school room decoration. These, with the drawings and photographs of parks and gardens, of public buildings of all kinds, of bridges, mural paintings, tree-planting, etc., constituted what was very likely the most popular portion of the show. But it was not the most novel portion, nor the most significant—we happily are beginning now to take municipal art for granted; and the student was likely to turn back, after resting his weary brain among the good things in municipal development, to those pressing, forbidding problems which, as long as they remain unsolved, must cast an ever-darkening shadow over urban growth. What, from this point of view, was the lesson that the exhibit taught?

One can interpret an exhibition only as one reads a poem or understands a picture—with a personal bias. You can only say what you get out of it, which may be something quite different from what your companion sees. To the mind of the present writer, it is a questionable policy for city planners to appeal as yet—though we may eventually come to it—for a radical change in methods of taxation. It seemed to him that the exhibit must have revealed, to those who had not already studied the subject and come to the conclusions for themselves, that there were a good many other things that could be accomplished more easily and promptly than changes in the tax laws, things which would go a very long way toward relieving conditions; that these things ought to be done first, and that to get them done will prove about as big a task as city planners and social reformers can reasonably contemplate. These things are the removal of many factories to the outskirts of cities, the building of new rapid transit lines, financing them, if necessary, either by the City Club's assessment plan or by the plan proposed by John Martin of making land grants, or by both methods; and then, as a necessary supplement to this step, especially if Mr. Martin's plan be followed, the extensive purchase of land, through bond

issues, by the municipalities themselves—the purpose of these purchases being twofold: to restrict rents by checking a rampant private speculation in outside lands, and to recoup the cost of important improvements by the resale of adjoining land at the enhanced values which the improvement itself has created. All this means, of course, that cities would embark in the real estate business. But there is no necessary reason why, in its separate bureau, that business should not be honestly, sagaciously and justly managed; and if the exhibition showed anything, it showed that such municipal action was as necessary to the welfare of the city, in a large sense, as, for example, the municipality's embarking in the

water business, or the lighting business. Finally, there should be the requirement of low fares for workingmen, which are now universally granted in Europe. The exhibit showed that not one of these steps is any longer to be dismissed as a device of theoretical value only, nor as any longer in the purely experimental stage. There is demanded for their taking in the cities of America not half the courage which has been brought to the problem in Europe. The pioneer work has been done. We have only to follow the good examples. The exhibition, in making this clear to the general public, did a great educational work. From that standpoint, in fact, we may possibly some time look back on it as epoch-marking.

PROGRAM OF THE BUFFALO CONFERENCE

A large and representative attendance is expected for the Thirty-sixth National Conference of Charities and Correction at Buffalo, June 9-16, on account of the diversity and wide interest of the program no less than the advantage of meeting in a large and conveniently located city.

There are a number of changes in organization, chief of which is the new Committee on Immigration with Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, as chairman. A wider scope and open-mindedness toward newer terminology and relationships are indicated in the rechristening of two committees. The Committee on Needy Families in Their Homes becomes the Committee on Families and Neighborhoods with Robert A. Woods of South End House, Boston, as chairman; and the Committee on Crime and Criminals is now the Committee on Law Breakers with the Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows of Chicago as chairman. The Committee on Press and Publicity, which held one experimental session last year has been given a larger place on the program, again under the chairmanship of H. Wirt Steele of Baltimore. A new note will be struck, too, in the presidential address of Ernest P. Bicknell who will

discuss the organization of relief in public emergencies. Mr. Bicknell's work at San Francisco and his recent trip to Messina to represent the American National Red Cross, of which he is director, give the subject particular interest and timeliness.

A number of special features center about the Field Department of THE SURVEY. The field secretary, Francis H. McLean, has arranged a luncheon for secretaries of the sixteen charity organization societies forming the Exchange Branch and there are to be other and larger special meetings, a report by the committee appointed last year to recommend a uniform blank, and an exhibition.

Conference headquarters will be on the first floor of the Y. M. C. A. building and different sessions will be in a number of rooms in this building and in the Central Presbyterian Church, the Genesee Hotel and the Y. W. C. A. Building. The conference sermon at three o'clock Sunday afternoon will be preached by Rabbi Stephen S. Wise of New York.

In connection with the conference there will be a special meeting of agents of remedial loan associations. In view of the wide interest taken in curbing salary and chattel loan brokers the past year,

this meeting should be of special significance. Frank Tucker of the Provident Loan Society of New York will speak on The Social Need For Loan Societies; Hugh Kavanaugh of the Citizen's Mortgage Loan Company, Cincinnati, on the Inefficiency of Protective Laws; H. A. Cone of the Detroit Provident Loan Society on What Our Society Has Meant To Detroit, and Charles F. Bigelow of the Workingmen's Loan Company of Providence on The Borrower and His Pitfall. This meeting is to be followed by discussion and by another open meeting the next day.

The probation officers of the country will meet as a body, with Henry W. Thurston of Chicago in the chair, and, as in other years, the National Conference for the Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children will gather in Buffalo the two days preceding the larger conference. There will be a number of exhibits, including one prepared by Edwin D. Solenberger of Philadelphia on sample records, forms and blanks used by child-helping societies and institutions in the United States and Canada. Demonstrators will be in attendance. At the close of the conference the exhibit will be forwarded to the Alaska - Yukon - Pacific Exhibit, which opens in Seattle in June.

Special railroad rates have been made as follows: By the Trunk Line, Eastern and Canadian Associations, a rate of 1-3/5 fare on a basis of 100 certificates. By the Central Passenger Association a rate of 1 1/2 fare on a basis of 1,000 certificates. By the Western, Southeastern, Southwestern and Trans-Continental Associations no concession, but tourist rates. Also a special low rate by boat from Detroit.

The Committee on Immigrants will discuss first The Immigrant Finding Work, considering congestion and distribution with papers by David A. Bressler of the Industrial Removal Office, New York; Miss Grace Abbott, Chicago; and W. A. Gates, San Francisco. The section meeting on Adjustment of the School Systems to the Needs of Immigrants includes papers by Dr. David Blaustein, Chicago; Dr. Peter Roberts of the International Y. M. C. A., New York; Miss Sarah W. Moore, Brooklyn; on the legal side are papers by Gino C. Speranza, New

York; Judge Emanuel Levine, Cleveland; and Miss Sophonisba Breckenridge, Chicago; and on The Child Of The Immigrant there will be papers by Philip Davis, Boston; Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, Chicago; and Miss Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, New York. At the general session, with Miss Addams in the chair, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell will speak on Racial Problems Involved In Recent Immigration; Prof. George H. Meade, Chicago, on The Relation Of Industry To Surplus and Unskilled Labor; and Judge Julian Mack of Chicago on Difficulties of Deportation and Extradition.

The Committee on Families and Neighborhoods takes up first The Integrity of the Family, with Henry Moskowitz of the Down Town Ethical Society, New York; Joseph Lee of Boston; and Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, Boston, on the program; Rural Communities will be discussed by Prof. Liberty H. Bailey of Cornell; John C. Campbell, Demorest, Ga.; and Miss Rossa B. Cooley; The Neighborhood and the Municipality by Graham Taylor, Paul U. Kellogg and John R. Howard, Jr., of Welcome Hall, Buffalo; The Family and Economic Conditions by Mrs. V. G. Simkovitch of Greenwich House, New York, speaking on the application of charity organization society methods; Miss Mary E. McDowell of Northwestern University Settlement, Chicago, on Effects of Industry on Women and Children in the Stockyards District; and Mrs. Florence Kelley of the National Consumers League, New York, The Bearing of Economic Conditions on the Family. Public Recreation will be discussed by Dr. Luther H. Gulick, president of the Playground Association of America, New York; Graham R. Taylor and Edward J. Ward, Rochester. At the general session Francis H. McLean of the Field Department of THE SURVEY will present a paper on Social Problems of the Smaller Cities, with pictures of neighborhood conditions.

The Committee on Children will open with a section meeting at which C. C. Carstens of the Boston Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children considers The Break-up of Families, with discussion by Homer Folks of the New York State Charities Aid Association; A. B. Williams, Jr., Jenkintown, Pa., and William H. A. Mills of the Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty. Juvenile Courts as an Aid to Good Citizenship is the subject of a paper by Judge William H. DeLacy of the Juvenile Court, Washington, with discussion opened by Judge Mack; Rural Education Among Southern Highlanders will be considered by Miss Martha Berry of the Georgia Industrial School, with discussion by George L. Schon, of Louisville, and Why Children Are Truant by Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, with discussion by Roger N. Baldwin, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. Ida Smoot Dusenberry. State and Private Functions in Child Caring will be discussed by Galen A. Merrill, Owatonna, Minn.; Stanley C. Griffin, Coldwater, Mich.;

Charles W. Birtwell of the Boston Children's Aid Society; and James E. West, secretary of the White House Conference on Dependent Children, Washington. Institutional Problems are in the hands of Brother Barnabas, New York Catholic Protectors; Wiley Mountjoy; Edwin D. Solenberger, secretary of the Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia; W. S. Reynolds, Indianapolis, Ind., and Mrs. W. B. Campbell, Anderson, Ind. At the general session J. J. Kelso, superintendent of neglected and dependent children, Ontario, will tell what Ontario Is Doing for children; Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation will speak on Unity of Child-Helping Work; and A. J. McKelway, southern secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, on Child Labor in the South, illustrated by stereopticon views.

The Committee on Press and Publicity will present at its section meeting a lecture on Social Photography, with stereopticon illustrations, by Lewis W. Hine, staff photographer of THE SURVEY; The Evolution of the Annual Report will be worked out at a roundtable in which J. W. Magruder of Baltimore, Charles F. Weller of Pittsburgh, Edwin D. Solenberger of Philadelphia, Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago and W. H. Whitaker of Jeffersonville, Ind., will participate. At the general session Dr. Albert Shaw, editor of the *Review of Reviews*, will speak on the Opportunity of the Publicist in Relation to Efforts for Social Betterment. This will be followed by a symposium on What Constitutes Publicity, Francis H. McLean speaking on Charity Organization Work, Charles W. Birtwell of Boston on Child-Caring Work, John A. Kingsbury of New York on Public Health Work, William C. Graves of Illinois on Institutional Work, Orlando F. Lewis of New York on Charitable Finance, and Robert W. Bruere of New York on Relief Work.

The Committee on Law Breakers will open with a paper by Frank E. Wade of Buffalo on Prosecution of Parents for Delinquencies of Their Children. At the general session there will be papers on European Reformatories by Dr. Walter Lindley of Los Angeles, and on Outdoor Work for Women Prisoners by Dr. Katharine Bement Davis, superintendent of the Bedford, N. Y., Reformatory for Women.

The Committee on Health and Sanitation at its first section meeting has papers by Rev. N. S. Freedman on Sending Consumptives From Home; by William Jay Schiefelin of New York, on Means Of Safeguarding the Sales of Narcotics; by Dr. George S. Leslie on Medical Supervision of Schools.

At the next section meeting Dr. Harvey W. Wiley of Washington speaks on The Food Supplies of Charitable and Semi-charitable Institutions, with discussion by C. F. Langworthy, Dr. J. B. Ransom of Dannemora Prison and Miss Florence Corbett, and a paper by Dr. Herbert Maxon King on Diet for Tuberculosis Patients. At the general session Roy Smith Wallace of Buffalo will speak on The Responsibilities and Opportunities of a Health Officer, Dr. Luther H. Gulick on The Co-ordinate Responsibilities of Boards of Health, Boards of Education and Park Boards in Relation to the Welfare of Children; Dr. Peter H. Bryce of Ottawa, Can., on The Responsibilities of Civic Authorities in Relation to Immigrants, and there will be a paper, the name of which has not yet been announced, by Dr. George W. Goler of Rochester.

The Committee on State Supervision and Administration has at its section meeting an address by Howard S. Braucher, late secretary of the Portland, Me., Associated Charities, on A Federal Bureau and the State Boards as Centers of Philanthropic Information and Publicity, followed by ten minute addresses by H. W. Charles, Topeka, Kan.; Miss Kate Barnard, Oklahoma commissioner of charities; and Mrs. E. E. Williamson of the New Jersey State Charities Aid Association. At the general session the chairman, Prof. Frank A. Fetter of Cornell, will offer a report on Comparative Study of the State Boards of Charities and Correction in the United States; H. C. Bowman on What are Proper Fields for State and for Private Charities; David F. Tilley of Boston on Private Charities Without Supervision by a State Board; and William C. Graves of Springfield, Ill., on The Problem of State Supervision in Illinois.

The Committee on Defectives includes a paper by Dr. Henry H. Goddard on Methods of Testing and Grading the Feeble-minded, with demonstrations; at the general session Frank B. Sanborn will speak on Progress in the Care of the Insane; Dr. Thomas C. Fitzsimmons, Carbondale, Pa., on The Care of the Criminal Insane, and Franklin B. Kirkbride of New York on The Eastern New York Custodial Asylum.

The Committee on Statistics opens with a paper on Industrial Insurance by Lee K. Frankel of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York, and another on Statistics Relating to Children, by Homer Folks; at another section meeting Dr. Thomas J. Riley, director of the St. Louis School of Philanthropy, will speak on Statistics of Public Outdoor Relief.

PENNSYLVANIA'S CHILD LABOR LAWS

FRED. S. HALL

SECRETARY OF THE PENNSYLVANIA CHILD LABOR ASSOCIATION

Pennsylvania is the greatest "power manufacturing state" in the country—so the United States Census Office reports. From that office we learn also that Pennsylvania has over two million children of "school age"—more than are found in all the New England States, Delaware and Maryland combined. Furthermore, Pennsylvania has the very industries in which child labor may most profitably be employed. Cotton goods, hosiery, silk, worsted, glass, cigars, boots and shoes, woolen goods, men's clothing and canning are the great child-using industries of the United States. Pennsylvania leads all other states in the glass industry, while in hosiery, silk, cigars and woolen goods, it stands next to the top. No state in the country, except New York, has so many children to offer to industry, and no state so many and so great child-using industries to tempt the child. Nowhere is there greater need for strict child labor laws, and in no other important manufacturing state, outside the South, are the child labor laws more lax.

In no state have child labor laws been so crippled by decisions of the courts. Three child labor laws within four years have been declared unconstitutional and a fourth has been vetoed by the governor on constitutional grounds. The good laws of 1905 fell in this manner. The next Legislature, two years later, defeated all attempts to restore these laws in constitutional form, and it was, therefore, with no feeling of confidence that the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association made its plans last fall for the winter's campaign. For this reason its rejoicing is now the greater since both the child labor bills have become laws.

Aside from soft coal mines, where twelve-year-old boys might work, the existing age limit, fourteen years, was in line with that in other northern states. But children became fourteen whenever their parents swore they were fourteen, and this oath could be taken for a quar-

ter before any of the more than 9,000 notaries public, justices of the peace or magistrates in the state. Conservative estimates place in the thousands the number of under-age children thus sworn into lives of work. The association's campaign centered, therefore, on the demand that ages of working children be proved by records of some sort, and that some interested and reliable officials, *i. e.*, school officials, certify to children's ages on the basis of these records, and certify further that the children can read and write English intelligently. The higher educational standards of certain other states seemed Utopian under present conditions and were not even asked for.

By a fortunate circumstance the Legislature in 1907 had created a commission to codify the mass of tangled school laws of the state. Representatives of our association were accorded several hearings before this commission, whose members, already convinced that school officials exclusively should control a child's right to leave school in order to work, were open also to conviction as to the necessity for documentary proof that children had really reached the required age. The commission could not draft a child labor bill or create "employment certificates," but as a means for enforcing the compulsory education law, it could, and did, create a "leaving school certificate," to be issued by the head school official in each district. As to proof of age it was stipulated that before issuing a certificate the official "shall demand and if possible obtain a birth certificate or baptismal certificate or passport or any other official or religious record of the minor's age or a duly attested transcript thereof, or, in the event that none of these is obtainable, may accept in lieu thereof the record of age as given on the register of a school the minor has attended, or, in the absence of such record, may accept the affidavit of the minor's parent, guardian or other person which affidavit he is empowered



PREVENTING THE "WASTE OR DESTRUCTION OF MATERIAL IN PROCESS OF MANUFACTURE."

The law reads: "No minor under 16 shall be employed between the hours of 9 p. m. and 8 a. m.," *except* in order "to prevent waste or destruction of material in process of manufacture."

to administer." This "leaving school certificate" was later incorporated into the two child labor bills.

Pennsylvania now has a sixty-hour week for children under sixteen, an average of ten hours a day. This ordinarily means a shorter day on Saturday and somewhat more than ten hours' work on other days of the week. Six pioneer states have already limited children's work rigidly to eight or nine hours a day and it did not seem unreasonable that Pennsylvania's children should never be asked to work beyond the tenth hour at least in any day. But against this proposition we found unalterably opposed to us the textile manufacturers who are probably the most powerful body of manufacturers in the state. They were entirely with us on the other features of our program, the establishment of real proof of age and a real educational test, and these are matters of far greater importance from the standpoint of child labor reform than the fixing of a rigid ten-hour day for children. But with the manufacturers it was quite the reverse. The hours question was supreme in their eyes. They declared that a provision for a rigid ten-hour day for children—necessitating, as they asserted, the same

hours for the entire mill—was an unfair burden upon their industry in competition with other textile states. In 1905 when this shorter hour issue was not raised, these manufacturers had been very active in their support of the bill which raised the child labor age from thirteen to fourteen. In 1907 our association's insistence on the rigid ten-hour day in its bill caused these men to take sides against us in support of a bill which allowed the average ten-hour day, but which was so loose in its requirements for child labor certificates that it was opposed by our association. Both bills were lost. Late in January of this year, therefore, we decided to waive the rigid ten-hour day in favor of the average ten-hour day with a fifty-eight-hour week, thus requiring a short Saturday afternoon. This decision was the turning point of the campaign. The textile men were active and steadfast in their support of the factory bill in this form and their efforts were undoubtedly a principal cause, if not the principal cause, of its ultimate passage.

Critics from eight-hour and nine-hour states, or states which have the rigid ten-hour day for children, should remember that not one of these states ranks high in textile manufactures, New York's high rank in one line of textiles, hosiery, being only a partial exception. The New England states are Pennsylvania's great competitors in textile manufactures and these all have the average ten-hour day. The time may come when Pennsylvania, like Massachusetts, will have the courage to blaze the way—doing the thing that is right in industrial legislation because it is right, and in spite of interstate competition—but that time has not yet come.

Early in January the governor made a recommendation in his message that the Legislature give careful attention to the revision of its child labor laws. This recommendation was in response to over 10,000 petition postal cards, signatures to which had been secured from nearly 400 different places in the state. In this work, as well as in organizing local committees to interview legislators in their homes, the activity of the Pennsylvania Federation of Women was of the greatest

assistance. More than half of the signatures—most of them signatures of men—were secured through the efforts of the Federation of Women. These petition cards were sent to the association's office and the names copied before being forwarded to the governor by express in one thousand lots. Thus the association secured a gilt-edged mailing list—10,000 persons to whom it later appealed for help in the form of letters to their legislators.

By the governor's action child labor reform became a part of the administration program. Two years before, without let or hindrance, the chief factory inspector, John C. Delaney, had prepared and introduced a vicious measure—a bill which the Child Labor Association was fortunately able to defeat, though unable to pass its own bill. But this year Mr. Delaney's hand was stayed. His bill was censored by the attorney general, and when it was finally introduced, without even being shown in its revised form to the chief factory inspector, it was a bill which our association instantly decided to support in place of our own bill. In the transformation the deputy attorney general, Frederick W. Fleitz, had had before him the proposed new school code and its most important child labor features were transferred to the Delaney bill, replacing the parts Mr. Delaney had drawn. School officials, as the sole issuers of certificates, took the place of Mr. Delaney's mixed system, whereby magistrates, justices of the peace or school officials might issue certificates during term time, but only magistrates and justices during vacation. Real proof of age was required of all children who become candidates for work—this replacing Mr. Delaney's loose provision that children's ages should be proved either by a "competent affidavit" or by a birth certificate, etc. Finally a benighted exception in the Delaney bill which would have allowed under-age children to work if their parents are poor was stricken out altogether.

Only one of the evil features of the Delaney draft remained—the so-called "glass exception"; exempting the glass industry and other "continuous indus-



"FOURTEEN BY AFFIDAVIT."

tries" from the night work prohibition for children under sixteen years of age. Mr. Delaney originated that cruel exception in his bill of 1905 which ultimately became a law, and he has since that time been the glass manufacturers' chief ally against all attempts to have it removed. Around this issue—the glass exception—the entire campaign centered after the bill had been introduced. In response to the association's protest before the House committee the exception was stricken out, and the House concurred in its committee's action, passing the bill in this form. Later on the Senate committee restored the exception, only to have the Senate itself throw it out once more by a vote of seventeen to fifteen. This temporary victory on the glass matter almost killed the entire bill, for the opposition, with only three days of the session remaining, succeeded in having the bill sent again to committee, where it would have died had we not agreed no longer to oppose the addition of the obnoxious exception. So set, however, against a glass exception had some members of the Legislature become, because of protests from their constituents, that it was a difficult matter to keep them from killing the bill by refusing to allow

the glass exception—to be put into it again.

Child labor among the breaker boys is a familiar story to most readers of THE SURVEY. The records of a coroner's jury, only a little more than a year ago, made public an extreme illustration of the cruelty which the old law has made possible. A boy at the age of eight years and eleven months had begun work in a breaker near Scranton. His father had sworn before a justice of the peace that he was fourteen years old. Six months later he was killed by being drawn head foremost into the steel jaws of the breaker. Mines and breakers were not included in the bill hitherto referred to, these belonging to the jurisdiction of the Department of Mines. The head of that department made no effort in the form of legislation to improve child labor conditions aside from a clause which touched only bituminous coal mines, incorporated in a new code for such mines. The Child Labor Association, therefore, urged upon the attorney general's office the preparation of a bill, as an administration measure, which would give breaker boys the same protection that factory children were to get through the other bill. This was done, and the two bills progressed together through the Legislature and have now been signed by the governor.

On the day following the announce-

ment that the factory bill had been signed, the Child Labor Association made a public protest to the governor against the reappointment of the present chief factory inspector for another four years' term at a salary of \$5,000. Mr. Delaney's lack of sympathy with the new law—in fact his record of hostility to all the most important features of that law—was shown in an incontrovertible manner by photographic reproductions of pages from one of his annual reports. Scores of letters of protest have gone to the governor since that time. Mr. Delaney's term expired on May 2, and the fact that his reappointment has not yet been announced gives some ground for hope that a better man may be named to this important position.

The school code, drafted by the Educational Commission referred to several times above, was unfortunately vetoed by the governor on account of the mangling it had received at the hands of the Legislature. Several most valuable reinforcements to our compulsory education law must, therefore, wait another two years for their adoption. The lasting gratitude of the friends of the children is, however, due to the members of this commission, for it was their advanced provisions as to child labor certificates that have now become a part of the child labor law of the state.

THE YEAR IN CHILD LABOR REFORM

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

GENERAL SECRETARY NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

The trustees of the National Child Labor Committee have just held their closing spring meeting to round up the work and to outline plans for the coming year. The reports submitted by the general secretary and by district secretaries from the Atlanta, Boston and Cincinnati offices, gave an encouraging record of recent legislative changes in twelve states.

As usual, one of the chief interests of the committee during the past winter has been in Pennsylvania. Year after year, against indifference of the general citizenship, hostility of the factory in-

spection department, and opposition of powerful interests, the friends of the children have sought to secure laws that would exclude little children from the mines and factories of that state. For several years these efforts have met with failure, or when laws have been enacted they have proven so defective in certain technical features as to meet their death at the hands of the court. This year the general child labor law and the mining law were radically mended, the most important revision being a provision requiring adequate proof of the age of chil-

dren seeking employment and the issuance of certificates by the school authorities. A full account of the efforts to secure this new law is related elsewhere in this number by Fred S. Hall, secretary of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association, under whose wise management the campaign was directed. A vigorous effort was made to eliminate night work among children, but this again was defeated by the influence of the glass manufacturers, who also defeated bills to the same effect in Indiana, West Virginia and New Jersey.

In New Jersey members of the glass blowers union again opposed the prevailing attitude of organized labor, by opposing the child labor bill.

SPECIAL INTERESTS

The influence of special industries appeared in other legislative campaigns. In Michigan the new law restricting night work exempts canning factories, telegraph and telephone companies and the United States Postal Service. Evidently the legislators of that state believe the postal authorities are ignorant of the order issued from Washington last year, regulating the employment of boys as special messengers. Delaware exempts from the prohibition of night work factories engaged in the canning of fruits and vegetables and (presumably because of the perishable nature of their product!) basket-factories.

In New York it was hoped that the revelations made two years ago of the conditions in many of the canning factories and sheds would result in legislation protecting little children from such exploitation. It was found impossible, however, to combat successfully the powerful influence of the canners, and for another year children of very tender years will continue under the unsanitary and excessive forms of labor prevailing in many of these establishments.

The Child Labor Committee was successful, however, in securing the enactment of two important laws: one incorporating a specified list of dangerous occupations forbidden to children under sixteen years of age, the other strengthening the commissioner of labor in the

efforts of his department to prosecute for violations of the mercantile law.

MAKING WEAK LAWS ENFORCEABLE

Experience is teaching that working for efficient and honest factory inspection and patching up weak laws to make them enforceable are quite as important as attempting to secure higher age limits and stricter limitation of hours. It was upon the effort to correct fatal defects as to proof of age in the Pennsylvania law that general interest centered. The same was true in Iowa, where experience has shown the impossibility of enforcing the child labor law in default of age proof. The new law prescribes the standard provisions for proof of age. In South Carolina the law, which has been practically a dead letter, now gives promise of becoming effective through an amendment providing for the employment of two factory inspectors. Already the commissioner of agriculture and industries has issued a series of blank forms for the use of these inspectors and announces his determination to see that the law is enforced. He interprets it as authorizing his inspectors to report all children under the legal age found in factories during working hours as furnishing *prima facie* evidence of illegal employment.

In Delaware quite as important as the limitation of hours and prohibition of night work, are the sections giving the factory inspector authority to enter and inspect the establishments under his supervision and to require certificates of physical fitness of working children, and the provision requiring ability to read and write English before applicants may receive employment certificates.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

In Arkansas a compulsory education law was passed, which however applies only to certain communities. An effort to secure a compulsory education law in Tennessee was defeated. New York amended the compulsory education law, fixing the minimum age for school attendance at seven instead of eight years. In New Jersey the law enacted a year ago raising the age of compulsory attendance to eighteen years was amended to

provide that children above fourteen may be excused by the local school authorities, on condition of having met certain educational requirements and on proof that their services are necessary to the family support.

REGULATION OF HOURS

A number of changes have been made in the regulation of the hours of employment. To the list of states forbidding employment at night under sixteen years of age are added by the new laws Delaware, Kansas, North Dakota and Oklahoma. Michigan extends the protection against night work to girls under eighteen years of age and limits the hours of work to fifty-four hours a week for all women and for males under eighteen, requires more rigid proof of age of children seeking employment, and ability to read and write English. Kansas, Oklahoma and North Dakota limit to an eight hour day and forty-eight hour week, Delaware to a nine hour day and fifty-four hour week, Maine to a ten hour day and fifty-eight hour week for boys under sixteen and girls under eighteen, and Rhode Island to a fifty-six hour week for minors under sixteen years of age and all women.

It will be interesting to those who have looked upon Rhode Island, for so many years, as the most backward in the matter of child protection among the New England states, to note that in this respect she now takes the lead. In the attempt to recommend a limitation of hours at the recent southern conference on uniform child labor laws, the greatest interest was expressed by the southern delegates in such limitation, but it was contended that in view of the long week in force in the New England cotton mills, it would be disastrous to southern textile manufacturers to make radical changes in this respect. A resolution was adopted, however, expressing cordial belief in the principle of an eight hour day. It thus appears that New England stands as a barrier to progress toward a reasonable limitation of the hours of labor.

The new law in North Dakota is one of the most complete yet enacted, following closely the suggestions contained in the "standard" law especially in respect

to hours of labor, prohibition of night work, dangerous occupations and proof of age.

The bill which Governor Haskell vetoed a year ago in Oklahoma was passed again by large majorities and has received his approval. Important changes have been made also in Missouri and Minnesota and bills are pending in Connecticut, Florida, Illinois and Wisconsin.

DEFEATS

The most disheartening defeat met during the past winter was in North Carolina where a compromise bill, presumably agreeable to the manufacturers, was allowed to pass the lower house with the understanding that no further opposition would be presented. Despite this agreement, a lobby was formed in the Senate and the bill was killed. This defeat in legislative efforts, with those in West Virginia, Indiana and New Jersey, indicates sections of the country in greatest need of immediate and courageous effort, and the National Child Labor Committee with the help of those who believe in its policies enters upon the new year with added determination.

FEDERAL CHILDREN'S BUREAU

In addition to these efforts to improve the laws in the various states, the National Child Labor Committee has taken a leading part in advocating the establishment of a Federal Children's Bureau. The bill is now before the extra session of Congress and it is anticipated that consideration will be given to the measure during the early days of the regular session. President Taft, who is a member of the committee, has given his hearty approval of the measure.

State committees, affiliated with the national committee, have been formed during the year in Kansas, Minnesota, North Dakota, West Virginia, Louisiana, and Massachusetts.

The finances of the committee are in excellent shape, the increased budget of the present year having been met by the generous support of the 5,000 or more persons who now constitute the membership of the committee.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION

PHILIP P. JACOBS

ASSISTANT SECRETARY

Most national conventions, particularly those which relate to social betterment, have a keynote, and in this respect the Fifth Annual Meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis held at Washington May 13-15 was not lacking. The same note emphasized at the International Congress on Tuberculosis was again heard, namely, that more hospital provision for advanced cases be made in all parts of the country. From the opening address of the vice-president to the closing session, this one note was dominant in all meetings: that the best way to prevent the spread of tuberculosis among the well is to segregate the sick, especially the advanced cases.

The convention opened in the New Willard Hotel on the morning of May 13. Owing to the illness of Dr. Vincent Y. Bowditch, president, at his home in Boston, Homer Folks of New York, vice-president, presided. In his opening address, Mr. Folks showed how, at the lowest estimate possible, 75,000 beds should be provided for advanced cases of tuberculosis, while as a matter of fact, there are not over 5,000 beds for this class in the entire country. He estimated that the necessary hospital provision could be made for \$500 a bed which could be maintained at a daily cost of \$1.25.

The report of the executive secretary, Dr. Livingston Farrand, proved that the National Association has broadened its field of work considerably during the year. The association, besides carrying on successfully the International Congress on Tuberculosis has conducted, or is conducting, investigations on various questions, such as the cost of construction of tuberculosis sanatoriums, hospitals, camps, etc.; the cost of maintenance in such institutions, and the death rate from tuberculosis in American municipalities. During the year ending May 1, 1909, the number of new sanatoriums and hospitals established was 86, making a total in the

country of 298; the number of new dispensaries opened was 85, making a total of 222; and the number of associations formed was 136, or a total of 290 at the present time. Thirty-four out of forty legislatures in session during the year considered bills relating to tuberculosis, and in many cases passed laws of various sorts. The national association has also carried on successful campaigns in the South, the West, and in Porto Rico, in connection with its three traveling exhibits.

The session on Thursday evening was devoted to the discussion of Tuberculosis Legislation, State and Municipal. Dr. Victor C. Vaughan of Ann Arbor, Mich., presented the principal paper, saying in part:

It is not enough to have proper laws; this is desirable, and even essential, but they must have the moral support of the people, and if we are to succeed in this the greatest undertaking yet assumed by man all efforts must be systematized. Personal ambition must be subordinated to the common good. The state society should be the center within its sphere of this great and beneficent movement. Its officials, especially its president and secretary, should be capable and broad, free from all desire to advance self or self-interests. In connection with the national association, our state societies should continue to supply the press with educational matter bearing upon the restriction of tuberculosis. It should provide capable men and women to lecture upon the subject,

The health officer must be the representative and administrator of the law of every locality, and it is absolutely essential that every local society should work in harmony with the health officer. It is to him that cases must be reported, not to anyone else, it is he who must have the excretions examined; he must keep the records, and it is the health officer only who can have the right to know under the law, of the location of every case of tuberculosis within his jurisdiction.

The most popular meeting of the session was on Friday afternoon, when addresses were made by Right Hon. James Bryce, Dr. William Osler, Joseph G. Cannon, and Dr. William H. Welch. Here

again Mr. Bryce, Dr. Osler and Dr. Welch emphasized the need of provision for advanced cases of tuberculosis. Dr. Osler laid stress particularly on the fact that the public was now awake to the dangers of tuberculosis. The battle is no longer a doctors' campaign, he said, everybody can take part in it. He urged upon the public the need for renewed efforts, larger gifts, and more workers. Mr. Bryce spoke in glowing terms of American enterprise in the prevention of disease, and showed how correct methods of treatment effectually reduced mortality from tuberculosis in Great Britain. Speaker Cannon's remarks were reminiscent, but gave encouragement to all workers in the anti-tuberculosis campaign. Dr. Welch pointed out the greatest needs in the fight and how the death rates from tuberculosis might be materially lowered, if proper hospital provision for advanced cases were made.

The subject of the Friday evening session was Tuberculosis and the Schools. Dr. A. B. Poland, superintendent of education of Newark, N. J., read the principal paper. He said that the state was responsible not only for the physical welfare of the child and for his mental instruction, but also for fitting him to become a useful member of society.

Some of the ways in which the school can make itself effective and useful in the campaign against tuberculosis were said to be:

Those selecting sites for school buildings should consider not only the convenience of access by pupils or economic reasons, but they should also bear in mind that the school should be located so as to secure a maximum amount of sunlight and fresh air.

The construction of school buildings, including the lighting, heating and ventilating should be so ordered as to provide for a complete system of airing, dusting and disinfecting of the school rooms.

The schools should be kept clean and free from all disease germs, which can be done readily through medical inspection of the school children and by thoroughly airing, dusting and disinfecting the school building.

The pupils who are predisposed to tuberculosis, or who are tubercular should be guarded from overstraining, due to the course or method of study in the public schools.

Teachers should be trained in the normal schools in the methods of preventing tu-

berculosis, and other infectious diseases, and no teacher should be selected for work in the public schools who has not been trained in such manner.

Children who are tubercular or pre-tubercular should be segregated from the other children in the school and should be taught in separate annexes especially equipped for open air instruction.

In the discussion which followed Dr. Poland's paper, Dr. Jay Perkins, of Providence, R. I., who has been largely instrumental in the success of the first open-air school in the United States, opened in 1907 in Providence, gave an account of this work in that city. Dr. Cleaveland Floyd of Boston, told of the work done by the recently opened fresh-air school in his city. Dr. John H. Lowman of Cleveland discussed the subject from Dr. Poland's standpoint.

One of the closing sessions of the convention was devoted to recent tuberculosis work and its result. Homer Folks read a paper on After Care of Local Tuberculosis Committees, in which he outlined a program of constructive work for associations.

A resolution was adopted expressing interest in the efforts of the Census Bureau in extending the present registration area, and offering the assistance of the association to make registration of deaths and births more complete. Another resolution declaring in favor of a centralization of all national health activities was adopted.

These officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Dr. Edward G. Janeway of New York; vice-presidents, Edward T. Devine, New York and Dr. Henry Sewall, Denver; secretary, Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs, Baltimore; treasurer, Gen. George M. Sternberg, Washington. The members of the executive committee are: William H. Baldwin, Washington; Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, New York, Edward T. Devine, New York, Homer Folks, New York, Dr. George M. Kober, Washington, Dr. John H. Lowman, Cleveland; and Dr. Joseph Walsh, Philadelphia. The directors elected for terms of five years are: Dr. Edward G. Janeway, New York, Dr. Joseph Walsh, Philadelphia, Dr. George M. Kober, Washington,

Dr. John H. Lowman, Cleveland, Prof. W. T. Sedgwick, Boston, Dr. E. A. Pierce, Portland, Ore., Dr. Joseph Y. Porter, Key West, Fla., Dr., Robert H.

Babcock, Chicago, Dr. Walter R. Steiner, Hartford, Conn., R. B. Mellon, Pittsburgh, John M. Glenn, New York, and Dr. W. F. Drewry, Petersburg, Va.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The arrival of the Slav is at hand. After centuries of oppression by his czars following the bloody wars with Mongol and Turk—wars in which stubborn Slavic lines spared western Europe the horrors of Oriental battle—the Slav is coming into his kingdom. The proposed Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina was "one of the signs of the ripening of the Slavonic question, the gradual emergence of Slavs from political serfdom and their establishment as the predominant race in the east of Europe."

Writing in the *Contemporary Review*, W. T. Stead argues that war and oppression have forged a certain degree of race unity. No Slav now owns suzerainty to the Turk. The right to self-government has been recognized in Russia. "The Slav is free to regulate his affairs as seems good in his own eyes. . . . save those who are ruled with the iron rod of Prussia and those who are for the moment dominated by the German and Magyar in Austria." This is a marvelous gain, a revolution, since "the Great Catherine aspired to rid Europe of the Ottoman." The year's troubles in the near East point the way the Slav is traveling—a way which Mr. Stead thinks may easily disrupt the Austrian Empire on Franz Josef's death, with a shuffling of states slipping into new combinations like figures in an ethnic kaleidoscope.

Looking further ahead, "the factor that governs the ultimate issue of the clash of national forces is not the statecraft of sovereigns but the birthrate of their peoples." By this measure "the future belongs to the Slavs. In the West population tends to a standstill. In France it is even beginning to decrease. But the Slavic peoples continue to increase and multiply and replenish the earth." Mr. Stead's figures show that "the overflow of the Slavonian cradle exceeds the overflow of the prolific German, the fecund Italian, the Hungarian, the British and the French."

Ascendency in numbers is thus inevitable. It remains to be seen if Slavic peoples can forget local quarrels and family jealousies to reap the reward of their birth rate. "The fatal tendency to anarchy that has ever been the bane of the Slavonian peoples . . . that ruined Poland" is "almost the only serious danger."

The growing dominance of the Slav among our immigrants, his increasing but thus far inert presence among American workmen, make his characteristics, his home environment, and his multiplying children of quick-

ening interest to us. The announcement that the articles by Emily Greene Balch of Wellesley College, published in *Charities and The Commons* in two series, *Slav Emigration at Its Source*, and *Our Slavic Fellow Citizens*, are to be brought out in book form next fall by Charities Publication Committee, is thus significant. Commanding a number of dialects, Miss Balch spent a year in peasant villages, learning to know the potential immigrant intimately in his family and community life. Later travel and residence among Slavs in this country all the way from Atlantic manufacturing cities to Texas ranches, rounded her experience and her appreciation of this newcomer's contribution to our national life.

* * *

Trinity Church and particularly Trinity tenements, have been held up to public view from a number of new directions the past month. In *The American Magazine*, Ray Stannard Baker makes a thoughtful and moderate statement of *The Case Against Trinity*, which comprises in fact a study of the "present agitation" in all its bearings. He considers the history of the church, its achievements both spiritual and social, the devotion of many of its clergy and vestry, the tenements, the long legal fight against the tenement house law, the proposed closing of St. John's Chapel, the small interest in and meager contributions of this "richest church in America" to any cause not forming an integral part of its own parish activities. He studies the gradual loss in church membership and brings out strongly the very small return on its invested funds. The net income is only a little more than two per cent, "while tenement property in New York is ordinarily expected to pay from five to six per cent net." This, he points out, runs parallel with the low return on real estate investments by the large insurance companies and lays the foundation for one of Mr. Baker's best-considered points—a "curious, insidious, benumbing disease seems to afflict those who control unearned property. Subtle, psychological changes take place within them. . . . They come to act as though the property which they control was in reality their own. They resent any questions regarding it, they spend the income where and when they like; they make no accounting to anyone. . . . They have not felt the thrill and inspiration of the new time."

* * *

The Independent has an article in defense of Trinity by Arthur Lowndes, writing for the new rector, Dr. Manning. The latter was asked to present his side following an earlier article criticising the church. Dr. Lowndes says nothing about the "rotting tenements," to use Mr. Gilder's phrase. He is chiefly concerned in showing historically that Trinity property does indeed belong to Trinity, and not to all the people of New York, or even to all the communicants in the state. He pays tribute to the men who have served faithfully and without salary on its vestry and to the financial help, especially in earlier days, which Trinity gave in setting up new churches and chapels as population began its march up Manhattan Island. In the final paragraph is this curious sentence: "Differences of opinion arise in every corporation or body of men, but it speaks eloquently for the administration of Trinity parish that there should have been so little difference of opinion or friction during its existence of over two hundred years."

* * *

The Trinity vestrymen are more or less impersonated in Miss Olga Nethersole's new play, *The Writing On The Wall*. A tenement house owner whose sole interest lies in his rents, fights and evades the law, but he is brought sharply to time by his wife, a settlement worker, who finds some of the worst tenements in the neighborhood of the settlement belong to him. The argument between them covers every part of the Trinity discussion as it has run through newspapers and magazines for months past. Finally, to pacify her, he promises to put on new fire escapes—but only paints the old ones. Fire breaks out during a children's Christmas party which the wife gives there, and her own little boy is among the hundreds killed.

The dramatic critics have agreed that of the two extraneous love stories in the plot, at least one is lugged in unnecessarily and that there are other technical and artistic faults. But it is a stirring play and a most interesting example of the recent trend toward sociological drama. It has been questioned whether a theatrical performance is a convincing way of presenting reform arguments, but evidence is borne to the fact that an artistic presentation of such material counts strongly by Mr. Baker, who credits Richard Watson Gilder's poem on St. John's Chapel with being "largely instrumental in arousing the present agitation." In the play there is a very strong and peculiarly distressing scene when the shrieking mother demands her dead boy of the father, following close on the heels of his insolent defiance of public opinion. To one in the audience there is a ghastly suggestion in thinking back from this act to the one in which he gives voice to some of the very arguments—particularly the "business" arguments—which have been offered in behalf of Trinity.

* * *

How a Home Maker Became an Anarchist is the title under which Frank Bailey, vice-president of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company of New York, points out in *The World's Work* for May the dangers that surround the ignorant purchaser of real estate. After sixteen years of East Side toil and tenement life, Barach Sholnky could count a hoard of \$1,500, the reward of self-denial and suffering. With this sum he resolved to achieve his greatest ambition—"a better home where there were light, and air and cleanliness."

Months of negotiation saw him the possessor of a two-family house in Brownsville, Brooklyn, the price of which was \$6,000. It was subject to a first mortgage of \$3,500 at five per cent, due September 1, 1907. Barach paid \$1,000 down and gave the builder a second mortgage of \$1,500 which he was to pay at fifty dollars every four months, with interest. When he moved to his new house he rented the upper floor to a friend for twenty-two dollars a month and having a reserve fund of \$500 began his rural life without misgiving. He is now a violent anarchist, without work or the desire to work; his family is dispersed, and poverty and misery are the fruit of twenty-five years of honest struggle. This is what happened:

Two weeks after he moved to Brownsville, Barach was obliged to pay seventy-five dollars in taxes for the entire year of 1904, the charter of Greater New York holding the buyer responsible when property passes before the first Monday in October. His title was dated September 30. A year later, when again his taxes became due, he found a charge against him for street paving of which he had never even heard. It amounted to \$262.30 with interest from April 1, 1905.

In September, 1907, when the panic began, he and four owners in the same row received attorney's letters demanding immediate payment of the first mortgage. It was then that Mr. Bailey met the unfortunate land owner who, with his fellow sufferers, applied to the trust company for a loan. The company's appraisers found the property had deteriorated "and recommended loans of \$3,250 on each of the houses." The change of mortgage would have cost an additional seventy dollars. Mr. Bailey never saw the applicants again, but he learned that they all lost their houses "through inability to reduce their mortgages or borrow elsewhere the \$3,500 necessary to replace the called mortgages." With the houses went the savings of a lifetime.

"The great need of the city," says Mr. Bailey, "is less discussion of the ways and means of dispersing the floating population and practical aid to small home owners. There are too many cases like Barach and his friends, and their troubles demand attention from those who would aid the individual who tries."

In France the *Crédit Foncier* is the door through which the small buyer passes to his home. When he wants to borrow he goes to the nearest branch where he "makes out a sworn statement of the value of his property, and all its details of condition. The appraisers of the institution check his statement." He receives half the value they place on the property. Then he gets a table showing the rate he will have to pay on his loan to clear himself of debt in any given number of years. He borrows for any period he pleases, and he may even pass the debt to his heirs. The very best first mortgage in New York would call for higher payment than he makes. If his income diminishes he may reduce his annual payment; in hard times he may lighten his burden and increase it with the return of prosperity. "This one institution now has outstanding more than \$400,000,000 of loans

on homes; and, in the fifty-eight years of its history, it has been obliged to take only about \$1,800,000 of property on account of default."

Children's Conference, Buffalo.—The fifth meeting of the National Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children will be held in Buffalo on June 7, 8 and 9, the three days preceding the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The program covers all phases of child saving work and will be of particular interest to anyone interested in work with children. The program covers subjects from the child problem in rural districts, placing out, medical care of children and juvenile courts to playgrounds, parental schools and settlement work.

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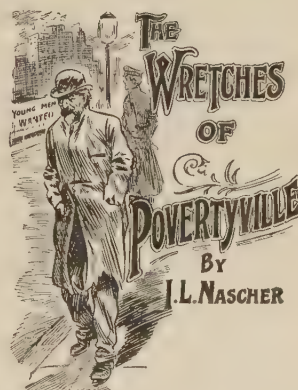
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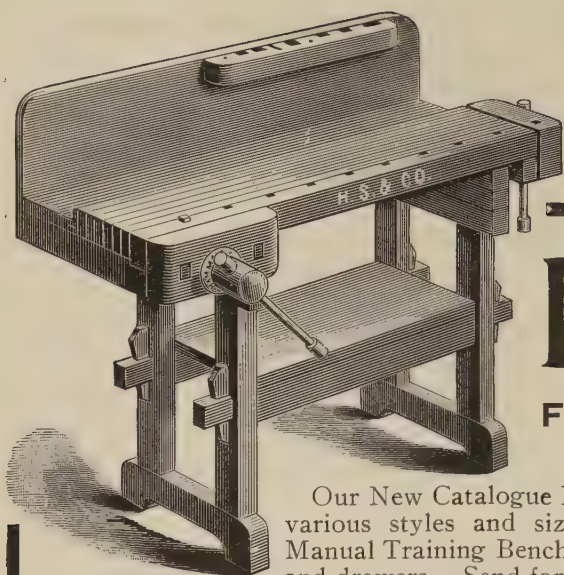
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

EXAMINATIONS :

Academic standards and customs are constantly brought into direct and indirect contrast with those of the practical world. How far philanthropic and social work should adopt academic ideals and methods and how far it should keep in touch with the ideas and practices of active life is still an open question. The question arises equally in medical, law, pedagogical, nursing and other professional schools and in technical schools. For the most part the academic has prevailed over the practical, so far as the period of the technical and professional training itself is concerned, a knowledge of scientific principles and of the history of the development of the science being considered of fundamental importance and most easily obtainable at the professional and technical school, while acquaintance with technical details and with the devices—not to say the tricks of the trade—may safely be left to the early years of actual office or shop practice. In social work this sound theory has made much headway but can hardly be said as yet to be the prevailing practice among boards of directors who are filling important positions. This may be partly for the reason that trained social workers who have the personal qualities essential in the important positions are still scarce. Two bankers were recently considering candidates for such a position in an enterprise which partakes partly of a social and partly of a purely business character. One of them desired to secure the services of a certain official in the federal government on the ground that success in an administrative position such as he had held was one of the best guarantees of the possession of the qualities that were required in the new position. The other did not agree with this view but was emphatic in his opinion that they did not want a “researcher,” but rather a man who could “get orders.” Later on, after the enterprise was firmly established, it might perhaps afford the rather expensive but still on many accounts desirable luxury of an executive of standing in the educational or philanthropic world. Neither could easily have been convinced that any university instructor in social economy, sociology or political economy would be qualified to fill the position, although it is one in which the chief work to be done is to deal practically with the very questions with which such instructors are dealing theoretically in their writings and classroom instruction.

The rapidity and completeness with which this sceptical attitude towards professionally trained workers and special students of these subjects in the university is to be overcome, depend largely upon the ability of the authorities of the training schools and university instructors to convince the practical world of the substantial value of a scientific foundation for social work. Some familiarity with the technical features of their future vocations can doubtless be given in the university and professional school. Besides, instruction and training in technique are an increasingly conspicuous feature of the best medical schools, and the analo-

gy of a nurse's training is perhaps more suggestive for schools for social workers than the law school. The course in social economy or in a school of philanthropy, however, which merely gives such familiarity with actual methods of practical work as would inevitably be gained ultimately in any good institution of the type for which the student is preparing, even if it is given far more quickly and effectively than in the institution itself, is missing its great opportunity. To be a "researcher" first and an effective practical worker afterwards is the ideal of the university and of the school of philanthropy. The main danger of the professional course is not that it shall be too academic but that it shall not fully and successfully realize its academic ideals.

One test, not the only test but one which is time honored and most familiar, for ascertaining whether students have obtained from their course what they have desired and have been expected to obtain, is the examination. Some very puzzling answers to one set of examination questions which recently came under our observation have raised the question whether these answers should be taken as evidence that this test is unsatisfactory, or whether on the other hand the students in question really are lacking in the necessary grasp of their subject, or, to take another perhaps even more tenable alternative, whether the instructor had fallen short in the performance of his duties. One question ran somewhat as follows: "If you found yourself as secretary of a charity organization society in a town of ten thousand population in the Mississippi Valley with twenty-five dollars to spend for a working library what would you buy with it?"

One student included among the books which would be essential a copy of the laws of Mississippi. Another proposed to start with a set of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Another would subscribe at once for the *New York Times* and the *New York Journal*, and another would want a copy of the *New York Blue Book*. Another would be satisfied with a copy of the "blue book" of the town in which she was working. A large proportion, not unnaturally and not indiscreetly; proposed to buy some or all of the works of the lecturer who was to pass upon the examination papers, but it is less easy to account for the strong conviction of several that English official documents and reports were so indispensable in the charitable work of this western town of moderate size, that a part even of so small an appropriation as twenty-five dollars must be spared for them. One young man would have delighted the heart of the practical business man, for, ignoring the literal and academic interpretation of the question, he wrote that first he would get some more money.

These answers are not typical of the entire set of papers. Many of them showed excellent discrimination and good judgment. We submit these samples, however, of the puzzling sort of answers in the hope that they may stimulate some discussion as to what they really do indicate. We may add one more answer to an entirely different question which is a beautiful illustration of the logical fallacy of an argument in a circle. To the inquiry as to the purpose of a particular analysis of case records, a student replied that it was in order to back up the theory which was drawn from this analysis of case records.

THE COMMON WELFARE

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES ON PRISONS AND HYGIENE

Before the echoes of last year's great International Congress on Tuberculosis have died away, we find in active progress preparation for two other international congresses, both of which are to hold their triennial session in this country in 1910. The International Prison Congress and the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography are likely to attract smaller numbers than the congress on tuberculosis, but they are nevertheless very important, both as scientific bodies and as channels of public education and enlightenment. The last named is really a combination of two somewhat distinct congresses, one of which deals with public hygiene and the other with demography, or the science of vital statistics. The birth rate, the death rate, the distribution of population, the increase or the decrease and the composition of populations are among the subjects which will fall within the scope of that division which represents historically the Congress on Demography. Very appropriately the director of the census, and the chief of the division of vital statistics in the Census Bureau are members of the committee which has in charge the arrangements for the congress; and it is probable that Prof. Walter F. Willcox of Cornell University, who has done valuable work for the census for the New York State Board of Health and elsewhere, will preside over this division of the congress.

Nine other sections dealing with various aspects of sanitary science have been organized. Some of the sections which are of interest to the non-medical public, although not, of course, without interest to public-spirited

members of the medical profession as well, are the following:

Hygiene of infancy and childhood, including school hygiene.

Industrial and occupational hygiene, including occupational diseases.

State and municipal hygiene, including administration, housing, streets, disposal of waste, etc.

Hygiene of institutions and public buildings, including schools, churches, children's institutions, reformatories, jails, prisons, etc.

Hygiene of traffic and transportation, including quarantine, public conveyances, railway, water travel, etc.

The committee on arrangements has held two meetings in the diplomatic room of the State Department in Washington. The congress is an official body, invitations to participate in it coming from the secretary of state, and the necessary expenses being provided, as is the case of the International Prison Congress, by federal appropriations. Presidents of the sections have been appointed and will be announced when acceptances have been received.

Dr. Wolcott, president of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, is the president of the congress. Dr. W. H. Welch of Baltimore is chairman of the executive committee and Dr. John S. Fulton, who held the same position in the congress on tuberculosis, is secretary general. By courtesy of the government, a permanent office for the congress has been established in the Census Bureau, and requests for the program or other information may be sent to the secretary general at that address. Dr. Fulton is expecting to visit European countries in the interests of the congress this summer, and to attend the session of the International Congress of Medicine in Budapest.

PROF. HENDERSON TO SUCCEED DR. BARROWS

The Department of State has cabled Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago, who is in Europe, his appointment as American member of the International Prison Commission, to succeed the late Samuel June Barrows. Professor Henderson was the unanimous choice of the American committee which has in hand the arrangements for the International Prison Congress in Washington in 1910 and his appointment is known to be very acceptable to the representatives of the European governments on the commission. The executive committee meets early in July in Paris to make further arrangements for the Washington congress, and this meeting will be attended by Professor Henderson and Mrs. Barrows.

Professor Henderson comes into the work with an international acquaintance, a knowledge of European tongues and a remarkable grasp of prison reform and other social movements in this country. He has been a member of the executive committee of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, president of the Children's Home Society, a member of various state commissions and a former president of the National Prison Association.

The Prison Congress of 1910 affords an opportunity, like that of the International Tuberculosis Congress of 1908, to give a new creative impulse to prison reform in this country.

FEE SYSTEM ABOLISHED IN QUEENS COUNTY JAIL

Almost the last active work of Samuel J. Barrows was securing the abolition of the fee system of compensating the sheriff of Queens county, New York, and the substitution of a fixed salary system for the office. Indeed it was at Albany while looking after the bill introduced in the Legislature to effect this change that Dr. Barrows contracted a cold which later developed into pneumonia. It is, therefore especially fitting to announce that Governor Hughes has signed the bill

which had been passed by the Legislature the day after Dr. Barrows's death.

The method adopted by Dr. Barrows to secure this reform was rather unique, and shows how social service can often utilize for the common good methods usually only employed by railroads, insurance companies, and other corporations for their own business profit.

In the first place the fee system in Queens county was antiquated, uneconomic, and capable of great abuse, as in fact it is everywhere and has been recognized to be since the days of John Howard. Under it the sheriff probably received from \$35,000 to \$40,000 a year. In all probability it didn't all stay with the sheriff, it went both "higher up" and lower down. As the greater the number of prisoners the greater was the amount of the fees, young men and boys were often sent to the county jail when they should have been sent to Hart's Island where they would have a chance of reform. There were plenty of other abuses which had been unearthed by a special investigator.

The Prison Association did not base its argument on the assertion that the present sheriff was a "grafter"—indeed the relations with him were frank, if not cordial, throughout. The change could not affect him as his term of office expired at the end of the year and by the constitution he was ineligible for re-election. In fact he was ultimately brought to favor the change. The emphasis was laid rather on the constant possibilities for graft inherent in such an unscientific system and the excessive cost of that system to the taxpayers themselves.

The Prison Association showed that in forty-eight of the sixty odd counties of New York the fee system had been abolished with a consequent saving of expense to the people of from ten to fifty per cent. There was often an almost equal reduction in the number of prisoners, since it was no longer to the interest of the sheriff to keep his jail full for the sake of the fees.

Former attempts to abolish the sys-

tem have failed, for the office was a fat political plum. Yet if it was not changed this year the change could not go into effect for three years more, when another sheriff would be elected. A bill fixing an \$8,000 salary was introduced in the Legislature by Assemblyman William A. De Groot (Republican) of Queens county. He had made previous attempts to change the system. The bill was closely modeled after that by which the system was abolished in Kings county, Queens being the only county in Greater New York to cling to the fee system.

Dr. Barrows saw that if the bill was to become a law the apathy of the people of Queens must be overcome, and the best sources of public sentiment in the borough must be aroused. So he decided to do what the street railways have called "accelerating public opinion." In other words he employed a press agent. The local papers, with but few exceptions, were found to be either indifferent or controlled by influences actually opposed to the change. But at any rate they were got to discussing the proposition *con* if not *pro*. That was something. Some were converted and wrote favorable editorials. Special articles were prepared and sent to them regularly and they were not allowed to forget that there was a bill at Albany. The New York papers were included also. Interviews were obtained with the leading citizens of the county and published. Hundreds of letters were sent to influential men urging them to write to their representatives in the Legislature to secure the passage of the bill. At the regular meetings of various civic bodies the matter was presented and resolutions were passed. In short in the space of about two weeks the people of Queens at least found out what they otherwise would not have known was going on. They were educated up to the reform and they responded to it. Apathy changed to activity.

Meanwhile the Democratic senator from Queens, Dennis J. Hart, introduced an identical bill in the Senate

with the exception that the salary was to be fixed by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The board, the county, and the sheriff being normally all democratic, the effect of this was to insure a greater salary than \$8,000. On the other hand it had this advantage, however, that it recognized the principle of "home rule" rather than "legislature rule" in respect to compensation of a local officer.

All this took place in the last days of the Legislature when bills were dying more or less painlessly. Efforts were now concentrated on Albany; the press representative took up Dr. Barrows's work there. The strong card was the very considerable local sentiment that had been aroused. Neither bill was entirely satisfactory to both the assemblyman and the senator; each naturally preferred his own. Also there was a slight doubt which the governor would sign. A compromise was hastily patched up and both bills were passed. The governor chose to sign the "home rule" bill. The lesson of the incident is not, however, so much in the abolition of the fee system as it is in the fact of the method of abolishing it,—the fact that the people can get what they want, provided someone will take the trouble to educate and arouse them.

TO REGULATE DANCE HALLS

In the social legislation of the last session at Albany, the bill to license and regulate dancing academies passed safely through various vicissitudes and received the approval of the mayor and the governor. The Committee on Amusements and Vacation Resources of Working Girls, Mrs. Charles H. Israel's chairman, which is responsible for the bill, will insure proper enforcement. Miss Julia Schoenfeld, a former headworker of Columbian Settlement in Pittsburgh, who made the investigation on which the legislation is based, will immediately resume her work for the committee.

One of the interesting features of the

bill is the provision that premises which are licensed for dances must maintain the regulations at all times and not only when they are used as dancing academies. This is particularly important on the East Side where halls rented for dances on nights when the schools do not require their use, take on a most undesirable character.

The principal features of the bill are the inspection as to safety of construction, and the prohibition of the sale of liquor in the dancing academy or in any room connected with it on the same floor. It was impossible to exclude the sale of liquor entirely from the premises as this would interfere with legitimate places in first class hotels.

PRUNING NEW YORK STATE APPROPRIATIONS

Governor Hughes has disallowed a number of appropriations for the establishment or development of state charitable and penal institutions made by the New York Legislature of 1909.

The total appropriations amounted to \$38,456,909.99. The amount disallowed by the governor is \$4,488,886.06, leaving the total appropriations \$33,968,023.93, which is about the estimated annual income of the state. The disallowances include \$636,000 for the New York State Training School for Boys; \$136,750 for charitable institutions, including \$50,000 for Letchworth Village for the feeble-minded; \$175,000 for a site for a new hospital for the insane; \$226,950 for existing hospitals for the insane; and \$172,000 for prisons, including \$150,000 for the new prison at Comstock. The effect of some of these disallowances will be to defer the opening of new institutions for at least a year.

The largest curtailment is that of the total appropriation of the New York State Training School for Boys. After six years of effort a site was finally selected last year. Very complete plans were made in accordance with the best authorities on reformatory treatment for boys, and the commission in charge was prepared to make considerable progress during the coming year. The appropria-

tion bill provided that \$86,000 should be immediately available, \$250,000 on January 1, 1910, and \$300,000 on January 1, 1911. The amount which would have come out of this year's income, therefore, would have been a little more than half of the total. The boys who are to benefit by the new institution are now housed in the obsolete, unsuitable buildings on Randall's Island, where it is impossible to put proper reformatory methods in operation. The veto necessitates another year's delay in opening the new institution.

For the other new state charitable institution, the Letchworth Village, \$80,000 was appropriated. Of this \$10,000 is allowed for alterations and improvements of existing buildings upon the site, and \$20,000 for a spur from the railroad. The \$50,000 disallowed is for the construction of a dam to provide for storage and distribution of water. This institution, designed for epileptic and other feeble-minded persons requiring custodial care, will be able to care for a few who can be transferred to the buildings now on the site.

Disallowing the appropriation of \$175,000 for an additional state hospital for the insane will delay for another year the relief of the overcrowding in existing institutions. The present capacity of the four state hospitals which receive patients directly from the metropolitan district is estimated at about 11,000, while the number of patients is over 14,000. More than 1,000 are crowded into existing hospitals. About 2,000 more whose homes are in New York city or Long Island have been sent to distant hospitals where relatives and friends cannot visit them without an expenditure of time and money beyond their means.

To relieve overcrowding in prisons \$300,000 is appropriated for constructing and equipping buildings on the Comstock site in Washington county, formerly in the possession of the State Commission in Lunacy, which was transferred to the superintendent of state prisons. The \$150,000 disallowed was for maintenance and ordinary repairs and the transfer of prisoners, purposes which perhaps can be met from other appropriations.

In a statement explaining his action on appropriation bills Governor Hughes points out that "the cost of new establishments which will serve their purpose for a generation or more is defrayed out of the income of the short time which elapses during their construction. A number of concurrent expenditures of this sort causes a large increase in annual appropriations apart from what may be termed the current expenses and fixed charges of government." It does indeed seem unfortunate that permanent improvements of which the future is to have the greatest benefit should be paid for out of annual income. It is to be hoped that some new method of expenditure will be devised to cut down delays in making proper provision for wards of the state. It is open to question whether it would not be proper to expend some or all of the present \$5,000,000 surplus in the treasury towards permanent additions to the plant for the accommodation of those for whose care the state has made itself responsible.

BLOCK BASIS FOR THE 1910 CENSUS

Plans for making the census of 1910 more directly serviceable to social workers, which were discussed at a meeting held in the United Charities Building, New York, in February, and left to a committee representing a large group of national and local organizations, have been accepted in principle at an informal conference held with officials of the Census Bureau in Washington. It is practically certain that the block census—compiling returns by city blocks instead of larger units—will be adopted for at least certain sections of the largest cities. It has been pointed out that density of population and city conditions so affect returns that the unit of one block in a large city is in reality comparable to a much larger unit in a small community. Other recommendations will be adopted so far as the census appropriation and equipment permit.

The committee urged a block census for sections of cities of a half million or more inhabitants. In view of the cost and

of the necessary limitations of space in the census reports, the recommendation for New York included a division, first, by the five boroughs; and, second, by certain "selected" and "excluded" districts in the boroughs.

In the "selected" districts the plan is for a tabulation with regard to population and nativity both on a block basis and also on a basis of permanent enumeration districts of about eighty acres each, equal to say twenty city blocks of the size found between Seventeenth and Twenty-seventh streets and First and Second avenues, Manhattan. The eighty-acre measurement would be only approximate, groups of blocks being taken in a way that would prevent such mixing of unlike conditions as would result from the grouping of a business district or a high-class private dwelling district with a thickly settled tenement district. In no case, however, would blocks be broken, and the old ward boundaries would be followed so far as possible for purposes of comparison with former census reports. The "selected" districts in Manhattan would include about 3,219 blocks, in Brooklyn 3,036 blocks, and in the Bronx 669 blocks, Queens and Richmond being entirely "excluded." In the "excluded" districts the recommendation is for divisions in square mile units.

Two methods of tabulation are recommended for the "selected" districts, one on a block basis, the other on a basis of special enumeration districts. The block tabulation shows number of families and number of persons. The latter is divided under native white with foreign-born mother, down through finely divided race groups much smaller than national lines.

The value of this careful classification is pointed out by the committee. In dealing with large social and municipal problems in New York, more accurate and detailed information of country of birth is needed. In the last census, for instance, all people coming from Austria-Hungary are grouped together. This is too broad and general for many purposes and the committee recommends that instead of a general classification of Austro-Hungarians there be set up six

groups as follows: Austria, Styria and Tyrol; Bohemia and Moravia; Croatia and Slavonia; Dalmatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina; Galicia; Hungary. More than this, in certain countries there would be a further division of Jewish and non-Jewish. The bare statement that there are so many thousand Poles in Buffalo and so many thousand Poles in New York has proved of little practical service without further information as to how many in Buffalo are Catholic Poles and how many in New York are Polish Jews—people almost as different as Italians and Germans in their characteristics and in the problems arising from their city settlements. The Jewish and non-Jewish classification is recommended for Galicia, Hungary, Roumania, and Russia. It is recommended that Finns, who are really Scandinavians, be separated from other "Russians."

STATISTICS HELPFUL IN REFORM MOVEMENTS

The recommendations regarding special enumeration districts follow the general line of the twelfth census regarding certain social information, except that they are to be presented for small areas in place of entire boroughs, thus greatly enhancing their usefulness at only slightly increased expense. For this purpose five tables are recommended. The first table would show the number of years in the United States of foreignborn persons, running from one to twenty years. The second table would show ages for males and females classified as to native born, foreign born, native white of native parentage, native white of foreign parentage, foreign white, and colored. Two additional age groups are recommended, one showing those from seven to thirteen years inclusive, and one those from fourteen to fifteen years inclusive, which were not included in the last census. Both of these groups are important in the campaigns to restrict child labor and enforce compulsory education laws. The third table takes up occupations under the same birth divisions as table two, classifying by those in gainful occupations and those

not in gainful occupations, the two additional age groups being recommended also for this table with still another from sixteen to twenty years, especially valuable in the case of girls. In another table, dwellings and families, it is recommended that under the heading of persons living in dwellings accommodating a given number of persons, a regrouping be made in units of ten; for instance, one to ten, eleven to twenty, etc., instead of the present method by single units.

The committee recommends strongly that the census publish maps showing population and nativity on a block basis for the "selected" districts or, if this is not possible, at least key maps similar to those in the New York State Census of 1905. The establishment of permanent enumeration districts of a compact and uniform size which can be compared through different censuses, is one of the things on which most emphasis is laid.

The recommendations presented at Washington were prepared by a special sub-committee consisting of Miss Kate H. Claghorn, registrar of records, Tenement House Department, chairman; Charles S. Bernheimer, assistant headworker University Settlement; Miss Emily W. Dinwiddie, secretary Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society; Miss Pauline Goldmark, executive secretary New York City Consumers' League; George A. Hall, secretary New York Child Labor Committee; Miss Mary Van Kleeck, industrial secretary Alliance Employment Bureau; and Lawrence Veiller, director Department for the Improvement of Social Conditions of the Charity Organization Society.

At the Washington conference there were present from the census office S. N. D. North, director of the census; William C. Hunt, chief statistician; M. Sloane, geographer; and Dr. Wilbur of the Bureau of Vital Statistics. The New York delegation at the Washington conference consisted of Miss Claghorn, Mr. Veiller, Mr. Hall, and Health Commissioner Darlington. From Philadelphia came Dr. Charles J. Hatfield, of the tuberculosis association, Mr. Atherholt, representing Dr. Neff, the director of public

safety, and G. A. Weber of the Octavia Hill Association. The Chicago special committee was represented by Royal L. Melendy, secretary of the City Homes Association.

MORAL EFFECTS OF AN EARTHQUAKE

The rehabilitation of Messina and Reggio is proving both difficult and delicate, for the effects of the earthquake have struck deep, and persist. Even in San Francisco which recovered its nerves in an astonishingly short time, a part of the population was keyed up to calamity for several weeks. A sudden noise, a rumbling wagon or a gust of wind made men start. In Italy the moral effects are more pronounced, not only because of the differences between Italian and Californian character but also from the very scale and completeness of the disaster. It has been said that descriptions of the day of judgment pale before what is told of the morning of December 28 throughout two whole provinces. We are led to believe that the population may be divided roughly into those who have lost all interest in things, and those who have the fidgets. William E. Davenport, headworker of the Italian Settlement, Brooklyn, likens the case to a broken bone which "in an adult means greater hurt and care than the same trouble in a child. So a disaster to an old and fixed society means a worse setback than the same trial to a new community."

Mr. Davenport went to Italy a month after the earthquake, visited the entire stricken district and searched every hospital in southern Italy for relatives of his Brooklyn neighbors. The reports which he sent meant much to families whose anxious cablegrams to Messina were unanswered for thirty days, and then brought no more comfort or even information than a laconic "house destroyed" from the overworked military. Such a search is difficult at any time, but there it was made

all but impossible by the government's haphazard policy of loading refugees on trains and dropping them off at any town that would accept them, without record of names or destinations.

Mr. Davenport points out how habitually the Italian looks more to the government and less to individual initiative than we do. The form of things means much to him, too, and bears a changeless character, so that "emigrant though he be for forty years, his daily thought turns to his home city as the Moslem's to Mecca, and he is reassured by his sense of its permanence." For him, it is less a place for business projects and affairs, or a factory in which to fashion one's private fortunes, than a delightful playground, a theater for grand events; he is attached to it as the American is to his house or the Englishman to his castle." It is not a place his grandfather built—he knows it "related to the Trojan wars, the times of Ulysses and the games at Mount Olympus." Neptune emerged between Scylla and Charybdis, as his statue very well bears witness. The Madonna sent a letter to Messina by an early apostle, "the Bible itself tells how St. Paul stopped at Reggio." So to destroy a city beloved of the old gods and of saints and apostles since, is a social and moral calamity, an outrage—"it is a sin," one woman repeated over and over again. "It not only rendered thousands homeless, but left them without wish or purpose beyond bread and sleep." Few cared to go back to their old houses. The progressive and competent are hardest struck. Three-fourths of all who escaped were those who had least to lose and could contribute least to a new and thrifty city.

Thus the calamity took not only a man's house and his goods and mayhap his wife, but at one blow it wiped out his whole perspective and left him adrift without anchorage. Business men complained at the government's delay. Mr. Davenport reported that at the rate the soldiers worked while he

was there, two years would be required to dig out and bury all the bodies. The priests held the earthquake a divine visitation, a warning against religious negligence, whereat the free thinkers flooded the town with handbills deriding clerical stupidity. In answer, the cathedral was illuminated, more circulars were distributed and a great festival held in honor St. Agata of Catania. Street hawkers offered the fugitives crudely painted placards representing miracles wrought by the Madonna of Carmine on behalf of the victims. A public orator in the streets of Palermo read a ballad on the results of the disaster, in which Messina, Catania and Palermo were impersonated in eager debate. The sisters, Messina and Catania, explain how the sea has betrayed them and the once reliable earth played false. Now they are in rags, they are like an eggshell or an orange rind, and their children have been massacred before their eyes. Then both appeal to the big brother, Palermo, who listens to their story and decides that any government unmoved by such disasters must be counted shameless and corrupt. "Anyhow," he says, "you can depend on me. I and indeed all Sicily will stand by you and do whatever we can for a sister city so badly used by Rome."

The great question is what the government will do. Mr. Davenport reports that "to many the test of the nation's strength and character is the spirit and manner in which it shall meet this exigency." Messina and Reggio will be rebuilt—there are a half dozen plans before the government now—all Italy is called upon to make enthusiastic sacrifice for the south, and if the government and the people act with spirit, the tragedy may even be turned to good account in "welding together more firmly these distant provinces, healing the wounds of local jealousy and distrust, and quickening that passion of nationality so characteristic of our age and out of which we chiefly look for social health and progress."

\$50,000 A WEEK

STATE INSURANCE

Substantial progress is being made in the practical operation of the Massachusetts plan of savings bank life insurance and old age annuities, with the details of which most readers of *THE SURVEY* are familiar. Delays attended the preliminary arrangements for writing industrial insurance at cost through the savings institutions, but the work was started in the summer of 1908 by the opening of an insurance department of the Whitman Savings Bank. Comparatively little was done, however, until after the presidential election. Since then a vigorous campaign of education has been waged throughout the state under the auspices of the Massachusetts Savings Insurance League and the Boston Merchants' Association. During the spring actual returns have come in at an average of over \$40,000 a week. A total of about \$750,000 of insurance was written before June 1, representing about 2,000 policy holders. Although not a large amount as insurance figures go, this indicates that a very considerable success may be expected as the advantages of the system become widely understood.

The largest results thus far have been reached in shoe factories, which are the biggest Massachusetts industry. They employ many highly skilled operatives who earn good wages. They are directed by alert and energetic business men who appreciate that whatever helps their employees helps them. The first industrial agency of a savings bank to be opened for business was at the Whitman factory of the Regal Shoe Company. Its neighbor, the Commonwealth Shoe and Leather Company, started shortly after, and others followed in quick succession.

In several of these establishments from twenty-five to fifty per cent of all the employees have taken out one form or another of savings bank insurance—this in spite of the fact that the shoe towns have for years been a field especially favored by life insurance agents and that very many of those who have bought savings bank policies already carried industrial or ordinary life policies for considerable amounts.

The usual procedure for a company which has opened an agency is to have one of the workers of the Massachusetts Savings Insurance League explain the subject in a general talk, and printed matter is circulated among the employees. After a few days the worker either circulates among the benches or has those men and women who have shown an interest sent to him for further explanation. Ordinarily a few policies are written at the outset. Then after a little while the official of the factory who has been assigned to the work receives other applications. As the employees talk the matter over among themselves, they become convinced one by one that as the state has done a good thing in giving them the opportunity of life insurance at cost, it is up to them to co-operate with the state.

GIRLS PROVIDE FOR OLD AGE

Endowment life insurance has been so enthusiastically talked by life insurance agents in Massachusetts manufacturing communities that a very considerable proportion of the state policies written among men employed in the factories are endowment policies. Women workers, for obvious reasons, are more inclined than men to take annuity policies.

Work in behalf of savings insurance in Boston department stores is conducted on essentially the same lines, but the average amount of the policies written is smaller than in the shoe factories. Not every girl employed behind a counter can afford to pay even twenty-five or thirty cents a week to safeguard an old age which often seems far away. Nine dollars a week in one store, which is famed for the co-operative spirit in its rank and file, is held to be the "living wage" for a single woman in Boston. Individual cases occur, of course, in which a young woman supports several people on such a sum. The attitude of the girls is exemplified by one of twenty who, with a mother and two small brothers dependent on her, could not take a large policy but asked how much insurance she could get for five cents a week. She arranged for

a whole life policy of \$141 at twenty-five cents a month.

Co-operative effort is thus pushing the new savings bank facilities everywhere in Massachusetts. The savings banks are prohibited from employing solicitors or collectors, but solicitation may be done by others. From the office of Louis D. Brandeis in Boston the work of the Massachusetts Savings Insurance League is skilfully directed. The league has a staff of volunteer speakers who hold themselves in readiness to address meetings anywhere in the commonwealth. Five or six meetings a day is not an uncommon record. Among the speakers are such men as Joseph Walker, speaker of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, Robert Luce, late candidate for nomination as lieutenant-governor; Norman H. White, representative from Brookline and champion of the savings insurance measure when it was in the Legislature; Charles H. Jones, president of the Commonwealth Shoe and Leather Company, and Elmer J. Bliss, treasurer of the Regal Shoe Company. A trade union branch whose president is John Golden, international president of the United Textile Workers' Union, has undertaken to interest every labor union in the state.

As a department of the work of the League there has been organized under the auspices of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union a "Savings Bank Insurance Committee" with an efficient paid secretary to carry on an intensive campaign among women in industry for the encouragement of thrift and savings in the form of life insurance and annuities.

On this committee are represented the leading women's organizations in Massachusetts, as well as many establishments employing in the aggregate thousands of women.

Literature is issued both by the league and from the office of the state actuary.

Meantime the Massachusetts experiment is being watched carefully in other states, as, for instance, in New York, where a savings bank insurance bill in the last Legislature was withdrawn to await further experience in Massachusetts.

PRODUCT AND CLIMAX¹

SIMON N. PATTEN

University of Pennsylvania

We have two ways to reach the goal involved in our religious and moral thought, or are they all parts of a single, well-considered plan. Men have been made good by discipline and sacrifice, but they have also been made good by generosity and inspiration. Prayer purifies, but so, also, does enthusiastic work. If we have gone so far from the old scheme of salvation that no general return to it is possible, the only available plan of advance lies in the eradication of the deficit elements in our morality and religion. We would then have a virile morality and an ennobling religion which would harmonize with the industrial qualities that make for material advances in civilization. Amusement, sports and industry would thus furnish the lower rounds of the ladder of progress, which, in its upper parts, would be continued indefinitely by morality, religion and culture. No progress based on material conditions can reach far enough to satisfy all the aspirations of men: on the other hand, it is equally true that morality, religion and culture do not reach far enough down to be effective means of raising men from the depth into which they sink.

We do not need a new religion, a new morality or a new culture. They are already effective in their proper field: but we do need intenser motives for men subjected to depression and degeneration, and this gap cannot be filled by any of the older and already perfected schemes of social betterment. Civilization is failing through its success, for it has created a class too low to be moved by it. By saving the weak, by preventing disease, by removing starvation and fear a lower type of men survives than was possible in the primitive world. In this lower realm, where religion and morality do not act, amusements and sports are the only effective motives to elevate men.

Sport is the beginning of inspiration, just as amusement is the lower round of regeneration. Together they form a natural ladder giving motives of increasing intensity, through which the lowest men can be elevated to the plane where religion and culture act. Only the most elemental forces act on men depressed by overwork and degenerated by overcrowding. These evils affect us all by undermining the base upon which society rests, and that is why the moral agencies with the picture of whose summer sleep this sketch began, must open their doors and keep their lamps burning until the dawn if they would deal with these two monstrous sins of product. Until they are overcome, sin walks abroad in the noon-time, and the church sees it not; disease eats the mind of the scholar, and the school knows it not; lethargy, weariness, grime kill the color on the cheek of the girl, the fire in her eyes, the courage in her heart, and poetry mourns it not. Let them rouse themselves like living giants, and command us to let the Product go and to give men back their rights, their rights to time and space. Without them religion will not find the soul, education the mind, or poetry the heart of man.

STRAIGHT THINKING AND THE MEDICAL PROFESSION

Birth, digestion, circulation and other normal functions of the human body are subject to derangement. In a pathological condition, they present definite problems to physicians and surgeons with which they deal, if not always successfully, at least on the whole as satisfactorily as men of other callings deal with their respective tasks. They set the broken limb; they hold in check the raging fever; they secure quick immunity even for a child exposed to diphtheria; they cleanse a wound and save from the infection which unaided nature would permit. Within constantly expanding limits the doctors keep us all alive, relieve us of the natural consequences of our own follies and misfortunes, and by

¹Paragraphs from Dr. Patten's book, *Product and Climax*, copyright 1909, by B. W. Huebsch. Sent postpaid for fifty cents by Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York.

exorcising the diseases of infancy and youth compel us increasingly to die of the diseases incident to maturity and old age.

This scientific and humanitarian work of the medical profession has been reinforced by the medical charities. Hospitals, dispensaries, endowed medical schools, district nursing associations, and special relief for the sick poor, have played a very important part, under professional guidance, in the reduction of mortality, and in the lessening of suffering from disease. Inasmuch as there is no one who has autocratic power to direct all this magnificent professional and humanitarian effort as a great army might conceivably be directed, and as there is no one even, whose special duty it is to look over the field impartially and discover whether the advances against disease and ignorance are made at the vulnerable or the strategic places, it is not unnatural that there are in fact gaps here and there in the line of advance, that splendid victories in certain places are thrown into sharp contrast with comparative failures or neglect in others.

The particular function of the human body which appears to be most subject to annoying and in extreme cases disastrous derangement, and which at the same time has been most seriously neglected by the medical profession and above all by medical charity is the function of straight thinking which is supposed to have its seat in the brain. We do not refer to that rare and extraordinary intellectual capacity which is the attribute of the philosopher, or the prophet, or the exceptional man in any field of thought. We have in mind only that sane and rational use of the mind which, according to ordinary and reasonable standards may be termed normal. We have no difficulty in recognizing normal vision, or normal muscular capacity, or normal power of articulation, even as there is no particular difficulty in knowing when a person is so far free from phobias, delusions, or mental peculiarities that we are justified in giving him a clean bill of health on the score of straight thinking.

Insanity in all its varied forms has its army of specialists, and mental de-

ficiency, or feeble-mindedness is studied with infinite patience and persistence; partly for the reason that the insane, to a very large extent, and the feeble-minded, at least to a small extent, are segregated in institutions where they may readily be observed, and where responsibility for their care and for their cure, if they are curable, is centered on the officers and physicians attached to these institutions. Those who are not insane, and who are not chronically mentally deficient, but who are mentally disturbed, the victims of so-called functional neuroses, are not so fortunate. Of course for the well-to-do there are always at hand either physicians in general practice, or specialists, or both, who will undertake to give advice and treatment. We have it on excellent authority, though it may be rash in a lay journal to repeat it, that a very large proportion of those who are called upon to treat such cases have had neither the experience nor the elementary training which is required, simply because of the lack of special hospitals or clinics in this country in which such training might be secured. Leaving that aside, however, what is certain is that, so far as the poor and people of moderate incomes are concerned, the facilities for such treatment are almost wholly lacking.

New York, for example, with its extraordinary array of public and private hospitals, and its profuse development of dispensaries, has not heretofore had a single institution designed wholly or in part for the treatment of mentally disturbed patients. What is true of New York is practically true of other American cities. This is in marked contrast with the situation in England and in most European countries, where hospitals and institutes of this kind are numerous and well equipped. No doubt the current vogue of many cults of mental healing is to be accounted for in large part by this hiatus in our general system of scientific medical charities. Nothing is more natural than the rise of church clinics for the treatment of those who are in distress from the inability to think straight, if the relief for that distress is not forthcoming from the medical profession, and nothing is more certain than the disillusion-

sionment of those who rely upon the imagination for the relief of derangement which is physical in its character. We conceive spiritual power to be essentially the power to use the resources of nature, as they are revealed by science; as they become increasingly subject to man's dominion through the gradual and unbroken advance in the arts. The power is enhanced and conserved by religious influences, but it cannot become independent of the instruments through which science and art have partly mastered disease, and on which they rely to make further conquests.

For these reasons we hail with satisfaction the incorporation in New York of a Neurological Institute for the study and treatment of nervous and mentally disturbed patients, and for the training of physicians in the diagnosis and care of this class of disorders. We doubt whether there is foundation for the general belief that these disturbances are more frequent and more destructive than in earlier generations, or in other countries, but it is certain that they are common and destructive enough to cause grave concern, and it is certain that increased attention to them by the medical profession and by public spirited philanthropists will prove a wholesome corrective to certain unscientific and erratic notions which have gained rather extraordinary currency.

There is every indication that the hospital will be prepared to receive patients in the fall. The plan is to purchase and modify to its uses several adjoining houses in a convenient location on the upper East Side, thus reserving a larger share of its funds for current work than would be possible if a more modern building were erected, and greatly shortening the time which must elapse before opening. The hospital will be in charge of a chief physician with associate physicians, specially trained nurses and a staff of social workers to visit in the homes of its patients. Much depends upon the work of these special visitors, for while the hospital can treat and advise, the visitor penetrates through every hour and every act of every-day life, by suggestion and example setting standards of straight thinking and hygienic living.

Dr. Joseph Collins, who has urged the organization of such an institution for more than six years, sailed last week to inspect in detail the similar institutions with a ripe experience, established in the chief cities abroad. His description of the new institution is "not a hospital for incurables, but a hospital where curable neurasthenic and mental disturbances may be studied and successfully treated. It is proposed also to carry on a program of education for persons whose disease results largely from unhygienic living and thinking; by co-operation of social workers who go into the homes, to destroy the demon of fear and set up in its place courage and hope."

An endowment fund of \$200,000 is being raised, a number of contributions of five and ten thousand dollars having already been received. Annual subscriptions will be solicited later. Formal organization has been completed, with Richard H. Williams, president; George G. Frelinghuysen, vice-president; Otto H. Kahn, treasurer; Robert P. Perkins, secretary, and Isaac Townsend, chairman of the executive committee. The following comprise the Board of Trustees: Richard H. Williams, Adrian Iselin, Jr., Otto H. Kahn, Robert P. Perkins, George G. Frelinghuysen, Isaac Townsend, Edward T. Devine, Paul M. Warburg, H. Kearsarge Knapp, Richard Watson Gilder, Charles Steele, Joseph Fraenkel, M.D., and Joseph Collins, M.D.

FOR WIDER KNOWLEDGE

LOUISE S. HATFIELD

During each meeting of the Pennsylvania Legislature active work of public education is carried on by the organizations that feel the need of enlightened public opinion to help pass their bills. Such a campaign has been in progress during the past winter by the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee and by the Consumers' League in a successful effort to obtain a new child labor bill. One of the methods by which these organizations gained the support of the public was sending thousands of letters over the

state asking people to sign postals addressed to the organization interested, requesting the governor's support in the child labor campaign. Before these cards were sent to the governor, a list was made of the people who were actively interested in the subject.

The women's clubs of Pennsylvania gave much help in this work. Eighty-five of the 181 clubs took an active part in enlisting club members and their friends, so that at the close of the campaign, the chairman of the central committee had at hand a list of several thousand women who could be counted upon to render active service.

After each Legislature adjourns there comes a lull, and when, as was the case in Pennsylvania this year, the law has been passed and signed by the governor, there seems to be nothing more for the volunteers to do. Enforcement of the law is in the hands of officials, and the work of finding out how the law is enforced must be left to trained social workers.

To take advantage of this pause in active education and to continue the interest in social questions, the Civic Club of Philadelphia has undertaken a special form of summer work. It has had for years a committee on literature to interest its members in various books on civic matters. A list of books has been published each spring for several years. To emphasize the matter particularly this year, an attempt is being made to arouse interest in one special book by a carefully worked out plan.

Miss Addams's *Newer Ideals of Peace*¹ was chosen because it seemed particularly fitting for circulation at this time. Pennsylvania has always been a center for agitating the peace question. It is a state with an unusually large number of immigrants. Several of its cities, on account of their size, have city problems in particularly acute form. It has just come through a long and weary fight for better laws governing the working hours for women and children. The agitation for women's suffrage has started into new

¹*Newer Ideals of Peace* by Jane Addams. New York, Macmillan Company. Pp. 243. Price \$1.25. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.

life during the past few weeks. The republican organization, which controls the state, has never seemed more firmly entrenched than at the present time. These are the problems on which *Newer Ideals of Peace* throws special light.

To stimulate interest in the reading, the club has printed 5,000 addressed postals, bearing the words:

I have read

"The Newer Ideals of Peace"

by Jane Addams.

Name

Address

Remarks:

The following notice has been printed in the *Civic Club Bulletin*, the *Fresh Air Magazine*, and in several daily papers:

In order to impress upon women the importance of informing themselves upon the social and municipal subjects of the day, the Civic Club is taking a novel plan to stimulate interest in these problems. It asks that at least 1,000 women shall read Jane Addams's book, *Newer Ideals of Peace*; that each reader shall then sign a postcard and return to the office of the Civic Club before November 1.

Book stores and libraries have been requested to display the book and to interest people in reading it.

The cards have been distributed through a number of organizations that have been willing to give them out with notices at their meetings. During the first week 3,000 cards were distributed to the Civic Club, the New Century Club, the Consumers' League, the Philadelphia Section of the Council of Jewish Women, the Light-House Settlement, the Pennsylvania State Federation of Women's Clubs and the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Eventually it is hoped to interest in the plan every possible organization in the state.

The Civic Club hopes to develop a clearer view of the social problems discussed and a bond of sympathy between

people in all parts of the state who are reading the same book, thus gaining more complete co-operation in addition to an educational advance.

TWO BOOKS ON AMERICAN RACE PROBLEMS

Reviewed by MARY WHITE OVINGTON

New York

Readers of the *American Magazine* have followed the color line for a year; but the gathering together of these articles in a book¹ and their further editing show with increasing clearness the author's careful effort to depict the conditions under which the Negroes live in the United States. This is done from the point of view of the reporter who travels rapidly from place to place, interviewing his neighbors whenever he sees that he can get an intelligent answer, carefully weighing evidence, and studying the physical environment of those about him. He thus gives us a collection of facts and opinions.

Mr. Baker's pictures of the Negro tenants in the South, working their land under the crop mortgage system, with a white overseer who dictates the planting of the crops and uses a hickory stick when he thinks it needed, show a tenant system "that is much nearer the condition that prevailed in slavery time than it is to the present northern tenant system." It is a form of feudalism. "If the master or lord is 'good' the Negro prospers; if he is harsh, grasping, unkind, the Negro suffers bitterly." To escape these feudal relations the ambitious colored men buy land or migrate to the city where the wage system prevails. But here, since men are thrown more closely together, the color line is continually drawn, and friction becomes intense, culminating, perhaps, in a riot. The story of the Atlanta riot is told in detail, and a chapter is given to lynchings, North and South, a tale of horror that Americans should read, recognizing their responsibility for such barbarity.

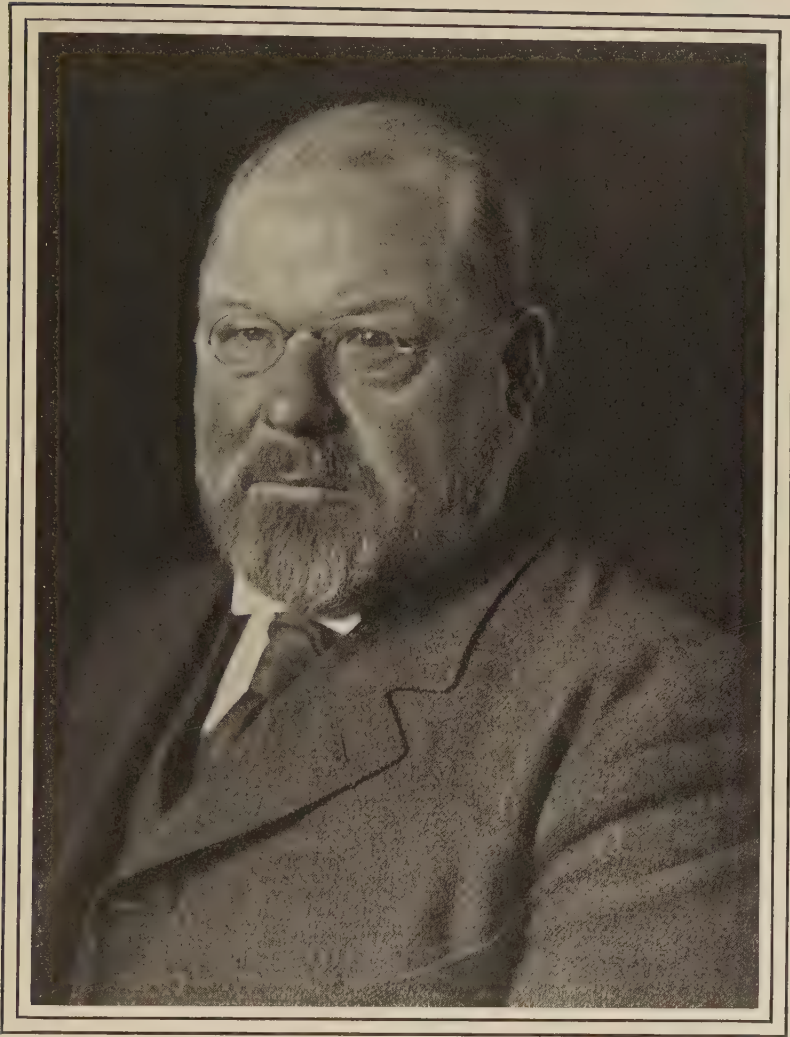
Mr. Baker gives full credit to the educated Negro for his progress. He de-

scribes farmers who cultivate their own land, preachers, doctors, and men of business. But he finds the white man in full control of the South, politically, socially, and industrially, and the Negro his helpless ward.

In the North the author believes color prejudice to be increasing, but he notes a growing sense of responsibility on the part of the whites for Negro conditions, and the development of philanthropic and religious work. The lack of economic opportunity is shown to be great, when even in Boston, unless he is able to conduct an enterprise of his own, the colored man has little chance to do anything but menial work. Many northerners will doubtless be chagrined at the amount of race feeling revealed to them in their part of the country; and they are told that they must not even rest in the assurance that their Negroes are enfranchised for "the North in spirit has disfranchised its lower classes. It does it by the purchase at elections in one form or another of its 'poor whites' and its Negroes. While the South is disfranchising by legislation, the North is doing it by cash. What else is the meaning of Tammany Hall and the boss and machine system in other cities?" But the North may rightly take issue at this parallel. Government concerns itself not only with matters of state, but with the protection of individual life and property; and a disfranchised group surrounded by men of a different race who hold all political power is far more helpless, far more likely to meet with personal injustice, than any henchman of Tammany Hall.

But that part of the book that will prove of the greatest interest is the fascinating and continual play of opinion that enters into every chapter. We learn what an unsolved problem this is, and in what different ways men and women look upon it. There is the chapter telling of the division of opinion among the Negroes themselves, the schools of Du Bois and Washington, the agitators and the opportunists, there is the story of the rise to power of the middle class in the South, the Tillmans and the Vardamans, and their method of making political capital out of race prejudice, and

¹ Following the Colored Line, by Ray Stannard Baker. Doubleday and Page. \$2, pp. 301. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.



ALEXANDER JOHNSON

SECRETARY NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION WHICH MEETS
JUNE 9-16 AT BUFFALO

Mr. Johnson celebrates this year the twenty-fifth anniversary of his entering charity work. He became secretary of the Associated Charities of Cincinnati on January 1, 1884. He was first secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities (1889-1893) and has had a varied experience in public, private and institutional charities, both East and West. For some years past he has been secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, his duties involving attendance at a score of state meetings and speaking before many other public bodies. He is a lecturer before three schools of philanthropy and for some years has been a departmental editor of *THE SURVEY* and *Charities and The Commons*. His acquaintance, ranging from leaders in social movements to hundreds of superintendents of obscure county institutions, is truly country-wide and his vigorous addresses and hearty good cheer are counted upon as leading features whether the gathering be a little knot of friends or a national conference.

of men like Flemming of Georgia, and Manning of Alabama who declares for the cessation of "lily-white nonsense." And lastly, there are the new educators in whom Mr. Baker finds the hope of the South,—Alderman, Dillard, Murphy, Speer, and Washington among the Negroes,—men who are working for the education and the material advancement of their section of the country. "Let us stop talking, forget the race problem, and get to work," is the dictum of these new leaders, and their doctrine has found expression in a remarkable growth of industrial activities, and in a new enthusiasm for education, "not only education of the old classical sort, but for industrial and agricultural education,—the training of workers." And after showing us these many opinions, Mr. Baker ends with a chapter of opinions of his own, giving a few kindly conclusions as to What to Do About the Negro.

Having covered so large a field, it is, perhaps, ungracious to suggest that the author should have written more; but there is a conspicuous absence of any discussion of the attitude of white organized labor in the South toward colored labor. We learn nothing of the thousands of Negroes working in the coal mines in Alabama, who last summer fought their "lost cause" side by side with their white fellow laborers. On the levees, upon the scaffolds of buildings, above and underground, an education is going on of white and colored that makes the education of the few thousand graduates of all the industrial schools of the South insignificant. More important perhaps, than the attitude of the white employer toward his servant, or the kindly educator toward the public, is the attitude of the white and colored workmen toward one another. But Mr. Baker tells us nothing on this subject.

The book is illustrated with photographs that are ill arranged and sometimes blurred. The pages, too, are broken with headlines in the magazine style that seem to imply that the reader intends to give only a few moments to a volume that deserves careful and serious reading.

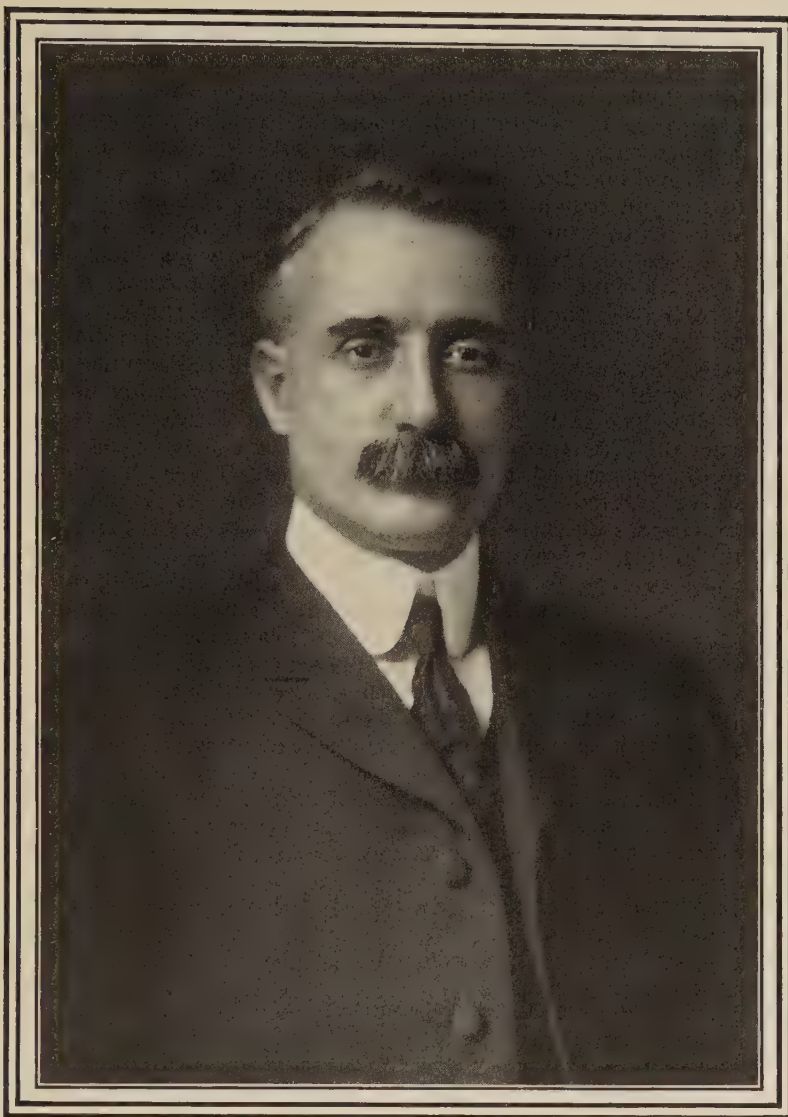
Mr. Stone is a southerner who brings to this volume¹ the result of fifteen years' consideration of the race problem. A wide reader and student of men and books, the most important chapters of his work show him also as a planter in the Yazoo Delta of Mississippi. He speaks with authority and deserves a wide reading. Mr. Stone tells us in detail of his discouraging experiment with Negro labor in the Yazoo Delta. Endeavoring to improve conditions among his tenants by placing them upon a rent instead of a crop mortgage system, allowing them also to buy their stock and tools on long payment, he finds at the end of six years that he must return to a crop mortgage basis. It is not that the Negroes do not work and acquire property, but they are too migratory to make good tenants. At the end of one or two or three years they leave him, taking their acquired stock and property with them,—not to better themselves, but because "they are notional and whimsical and controlled far more by their fancies than by their common sense."

Mr. Stone then makes comparison between the Negro tenant and the Italian, showing them as they work side by side in a cotton plantation in Arkansas. The Italian is superior to the Negro at every point, and succeeds in becoming independent while the latter remains poor.

With the Negro it is too much time spent out of his crop, and away from his work; too much waiting for the weather to improve; too much "leaning on the Lord," and too little upon himself, in things not spiritual; too much living for to-day and not enough for to-morrow. With the Italian it seems to be a grim determination to have more at the end of this year than he had at the end of last, regardless of weather or of price, to live on less than he makes whether the latter be much or little; to hire nothing done that he can do himself.

Mr. Stone believes that foreign immigration may take from the Negro the economic opportunities he now has in the South, and he describes feelingly the dissatisfaction among employers toward their present supply of labor. The immigration of Italians, could they be persuaded to work under Southern condi-

¹Studies in the American Race Problem, by Alfred Holt Stone. Doubleday and Page. \$2, pp. 555. This book may be obtained at publishers' prices through THE SURVEY.



ROBERT WATCHORN

WHO HAS RESIGNED AS COMMISSIONER OF IMMIGRATION AT NEW YORK.

More than four million men, women and children have filed past Robert Watchorn at Ellis Island—almost the population of New York city, more than the population of any state except New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois or Ohio. Considering the enormous executive work and uncounted detail of the task, considering further the bitter controversy of "restrictionists" and those who would "let down the bars," there has been little trouble over Ellis Island. The stupendous march of the nations has slipped almost silently over the threshold of America. It was Mr. Watchorn's task to draw and loose the latchstring during the years when immigration crept up over the million mark. During his administration there was a great expansion of the immigrant station, which not only added but simplified and cleansed, cutting out unnecessary stairs, cutting in new skylights, centralizing and grouping so that the trip into America is no longer an endless shuffling through dark corridors from one department to another. When the tiny island was built over without room left for a hospital, it was his imagination which claimed new acreage from the bay. But the four million admitted present nothing like the problems of the fifty thousand debarred. In his judicial functions Mr. Watchorn has won and deserved high praise. An immigrant himself—he was an English miner until twenty-two—he had a most sympathetic and patient ear to learn the full story of those luckless ones bearing the inspector's chalk mark which calls for further inquiry. But at the same time he had a nice appreciation of the immigration law and its application.

tions, would surely be of service to these distressed communities, greatly in need as they are of skilful agriculturists, but we are inclined to think that the author's brief against Negro labor would apply equally well against native white labor in the South. Travelling through hundreds of miles of cotton-growing country in Alabama, cultivated by white men, you find unpainted houses, neglected gardens, impoverished stock, looking all the more desolate in contrast with the occasional home of an immigrant, often a German, whose fruit and vegetables and neat buildings show frugality and intelligence. The difference does not seem a matter of race but rather the difference between a European peasantry trained for centuries in intensive methods of cultivation, and a farmer class in a new world, who wastefully exhaust the soil and then move West to new land. Apart from this labor study, Mr. Stone's book is a plea to the American to consider the race question not as a sectional matter but as a world wide problem,—a question that vexes the white race whenever it comes in contact with a black or yellow race. When the number of the inferior race is small the difficulties are few, but when the number becomes large there is a sense of "pressure," and the conditions that we see in the southern states appear. By "white" Mr. Stone evidently means Anglo-Saxon, for he dismisses all the civilization south of the Rio Grande as "hybrid." But no Anglo-Saxon can be without antipathy toward a yellow or black man however much he imagines himself to be free from race prejudice. "There exists the point of racial recoil—though it may be reached only at the altar or the grave." Our author gently insists that we should recognize this, and cites many facts in past and present history to show that northern and western states legislate for segregation when their Negro population becomes numerous.

Mr. Stone does not attempt to state how the Negro problem may be solved in this country, but he finds least friction when one race frankly accepts the position of inferiority. The great majority of black men, he believes, do this, and show a happy, contented disposition.

It is the mulattoes who stir the mass to demand equality, and it would be well to place the mulattoes in a class by themselves, ranking them as "colored" as is done in Jamaica, and giving them privileges not awarded the blacks. They would then be less dangerous to the peace of the community, and the white man would recognize, as he should to a limited extent, his kinship. Such distinction will not come, however, unless the Negroes first make it, and Mr. Stone thinks he sees the beginning of such a distinction. In this however, he is mistaken. He sees rather the end. Color lines within the Negro race used often to be drawn sharply, as one may learn who reads Chesnutt's *Wife of His Youth*, with its deliciously humorous story, *A Matter of Principle*; but they are disappearing.

This book must provoke serious thought. That the people of the United States draw racial lines wherever the Negroes have numerical strength every candid person must admit. Mr. Stone believes these lines to be inevitable and right. Are they? One thing concerning them is certain: they tend to separate men of common interests, the worker in the cotton fields of Mississippi from the spinner in North Carolina, the weaver in India from his fellow in Japan. They thus strengthen an employing class, and they can always be used by a despotism, as the czar uses anti-semitic feeling to continue his rule in Russia. Time will show whether the lines of race will be overthrown by the lines of industrial interests; and in the meantime there will be some of Mr. Stone's readers who, with Professor Royce, do not believe in regarding antipathies as sacred, whether they be antipathies of race or class or religion. Professor Royce says: "We can try not to be fooled by such antipathies, not to take them too seriously because of their mere name. We can remember they are childish phenomena in our lives, phenomena on a level with a dread of snakes, or of mice; phenomena that we share with the cats and with the dogs, not noble phenomena but caprices of our complex natures."

INDUSTRIAL BASIS FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Industry furnishes the victims of war. Working-capital and working-people are "food for powder." They supply the "sinews of war" in money and in flesh and blood. Brawn for battle and blood for carnage are drawn only from labor. The treasure and tax of toil are the fuel for the flame of war. And yet the competition of commerce to get the materials for industry or to market its goods has been the chief incentive and occasion for the world's warfare.

There is a poetic justice in the fact that industry is preparing the way for peace, and in the prospect that the new foundations for international peace will prove to be industrial. It is none the less, but even more significant, that the peoples' peace is thus coming, less through such conscious effort as those of peace societies and their congresses, than as a by-product of blind economic forces and of world wide industrial tendencies. But because of such voluntary preparations for peace as are being laid by education, ethics and religion, it will thus have all the firmer basis in the economic necessities of the new times. The ancients used to think "the stars in their courses fought" for or against them. We moderns are beginning to learn that it is futile to fight against the course of events, the order of things, the way of the world, and our common human nature, which are making for peace.

Industrial interdependence, more than anything else, makes peace possible, and war more and more impossible. Man and man are made interdependent by the sub-division of labor, craft upon craft by the organization of industry. Class is dependent upon class and nation upon nation all up and down the scale and the wide world over as never before in human history. "No man liveth to himself," nor can he. There is no self-made, self-dependent man or community or nation any more, no matter how much more

so any have been in the past. We have all become so necessary to each other that we cannot get along, or even exist very long without each other. This interdependence grows with every invention, with every labor-saving device, with every economy and efficiency in production and distribution, with all the growth of civilization. And as it grows, any interruption of these necessary interrelationships menaces human existence, becomes intolerable, costs too much for any people to afford. War, therefore, becomes more and more impossible, peace more and more necessary, as nation becomes more and more dependent upon nation not only for its profits, but for its very living.

A broader basis for association is being laid by modern industry which is sure to become the foundation for peace among the peoples. Under the domestic system of industry, kinship or the village furnished the bond for almost all human associations. Under our modern industrial system, combination far and wide across these lines becomes necessary to both capital and labor. Capital has been compelled to mass its money and management in larger units. An individual finds it less profitable and less possible to be "in business for himself." As partnerships supplant individuals, so corporations supersede partnerships and are superseded in turn by syndicates and larger combinations of capital.

Labor is forced to combine by the same economic necessity. Collective bargaining is the only way by which it can preserve its freedom of contract in dealing with collected capital. As employers and employes recognize their own and each other's necessity to combine, they naturally and inevitably deal jointly. The joint trade agreement necessarily includes provisions for conciliating and arbitrating their differences. Thus the very elements which have been creating internal strife

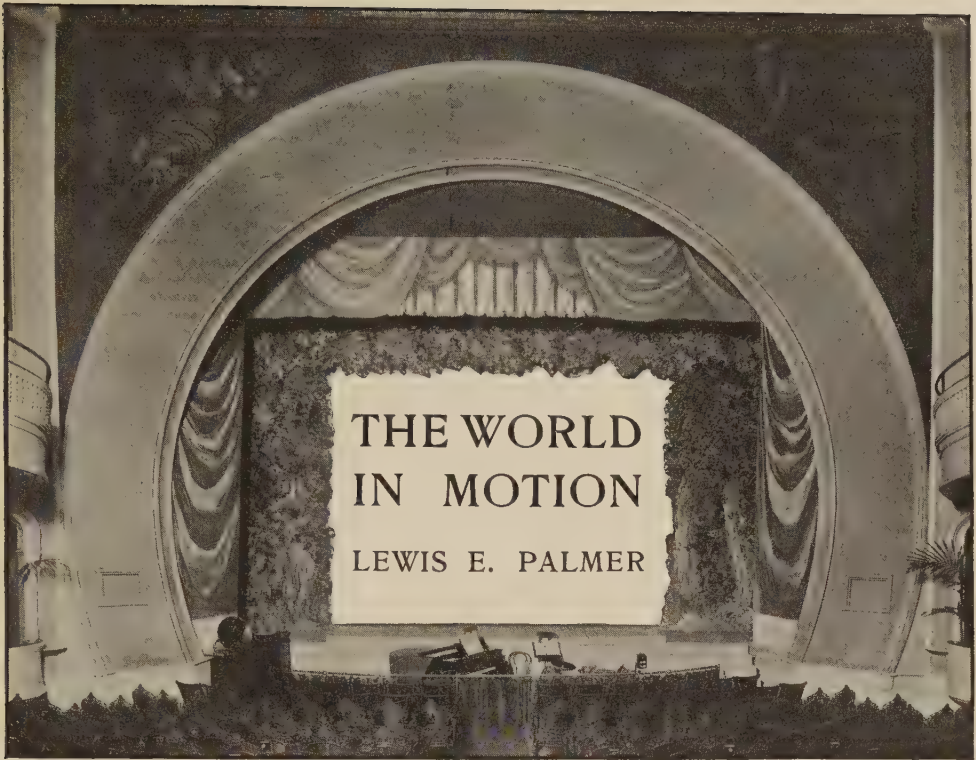
and provoking foreign wars are training themselves and each other in the ways of peace. In their separate and collective interests, organized capital and organized labor promise yet to be the chief impediments to war and the mainstay of the world's peace. For within every nation this industrial organization on both sides is clearly evolving a larger liberty, at least for the class; a rising standard of living for the mass; a stronger defense against the aggression of one class upon another and a firmer basis and more authoritative power to make and maintain peaceful and permanent settlements of industrial differences. More slowly yet surely, there are developing legal forms and sanctions which not only make for justice and peace between parties at variance, but recognize and secure the final authority of the public as the third and greatest party to every industrial interest and difference.

Thus by associating with larger and more diverse groups the people understand each other better, are less likely to be divided by prejudice and passion from those with whom they work and deal, and are preparing to fulfil Mazzini's prophecy of "the association of the peoples."

Modern industrialism tends to bring men into international relationships. Capital has necessarily become cosmopolitan. It has largely expatriated itself. Commerce floats its ships and cargoes under any flag that pays best. However sinister may be the influence which commercial interests have had upon politics, there is a larger good evolving out of them. Organized workmen, who were the first to frighten the world by ignoring national boundaries, are naturally developing international unions out of their national organizations, without the loss of patriotism. By stretching hearts and hands across seas to organize for their common interest across every frontier, these great craft brotherhoods bid fair to command the world's peace by their refusal to fight each other. Socialism is nothing if not international. However decisive it may be among the people of each country, it can never array one nation against another without committing suicide. However impractic-

able or dangerous its ideals may be considered by others, socialists themselves honestly think their theory furnishes the final and only basis of peace, by destroying the competitive incentive to war.

Industrial migration and immigration are playing a fundamental part in pioneering peace. Beneath all the unrest, waste and wreckage attending the modern mobility of labor, the working people who are drawn or driven from land to land are like the shuttles in a great loom that is weaving a new pattern of international citizenship and cosmopolitan patriotism. America's adopted citizens are not so likely to want or tolerate war with the lands of their birth, as would the descendants of our colonial forefathers, had they continued to live upon an isolated continent by themselves. The return of so many working men to their kinsfolk in the father lands, when trade is dull and work is slack in America, makes our very industrial depressions work for peace. Thus the movements of our armies of industry and fleets of commerce are really an invasion and siege of the battlefields and citadels of war for the permanent establishment of peace. Commercial and labor laws in every land and reciprocity treaties between trading peoples are preparing the way for international courts and broadening and enlarging the scope and power of international law. Already we have an international society for labor legislation, with sections in each land and publications in the languages of all the "great powers." This and every other co-operative effort to establish industrial justice and peace by the enactment and enforcement of law, limit the area and the number of the fields for fighting; substitute a court officer for a regiment of soldiers; build a "palace of justice" instead of a fortress, and consecrate it as the cathedral of the state. All the highways of traffic and the waterways of commerce lead no longer to Rome, but to the high court of arbitration at the Hague, where the peoples of the earth will yet seat the supreme court of the United States, of Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia and America.



THE BIJOU DREAM, BOSTON.

On an island 2,000 miles out in the Pacific Ocean the exiled lepers of Molokai gather daily before the flickering wonders of a screen that shows them the world of life and freedom.

Seated in the luxurious saloon of an ocean liner a group of travellers study the lifelike pictures of the countries for which they are bound.

In Iceland, excited Eskimos applaud the heroism of a cowboy who rescues a captured maiden from the redskins.

Half way around the world in northern Russia tearful peasants sorrow over the pictured plight of a forlorn French lover.

The correspondents with the battleship fleet tell us that in every corner of the globe they found those dimly-lighted rooms where living comedy and tragedy flash across the screen. Thus are moving pictures helping to make "the whole world kin."

It has been fifteen years since the old biograph with its flickering, eye-straining

spectacles of express trains, ships and parades invaded church parlors and town halls for "one night stands." In those days the manufacturers neither produced specially posed pictures nor employed regular staffs of actors. Scenes containing plenty of lively movement were shown—street spectacles, cavalry drills, battleships and the like—but the expense of films and machines limited the growth of the business.

Trained stock companies of actors and actresses with salaries from twenty to seventy-five dollars a week are now kept on the staff of the film manufacturers. Acting before the camera is considered particularly good training, calling as it does for great facial expression; one New York studio has on its staff a young actress who has been playing a well known part all winter within a stone's throw of Times Square. The cost of picture making ranges from a few hundred dollars for the simple scenes re-



quiring little preparation, to thousands for the elaborately staged, beautifully tinted *film d'art* of one French company.

Patents galore have been made on cameras, projecting lenses and machines until the clear moving pictures of today portray life so closely that we can believe the newspaper story of the Montana cow puncher who fell asleep in one of Butte's Dreamlands and awoke to see a grizzly bear bounding towards him on the screen. The bear died, the newspaper said, and the show stopped temporarily while the smoke cleared away and a settlement for broken glassware was made with the saloon keeper next door.

Broadway audiences are no more loyal to their favorites than are the patrons of "canned drama" with its "first nighters" and its friendly and unfriendly critics. One little girl who plays a prominent part in the pictures of a certain New York manufacturer has been named Annette by her admirers of the East Side. Her appearance on the screen brings a round of applause that needs only the star's smiling nod of appreciation to complete the picture. In one of Fourteenth street's big theaters a few weeks ago, the first show of the day had just started with not more than twenty-five persons scattered over the house. Over in one dimly lighted corner was an interested spectator whose extreme dislike for the villain was expressed in loud and continued hissing which continued as long as the heavily moustached "home wrecker" was in the picture. Visit a moving picture show on a Saturday night when the house is full, and you will soon be convinced of the real

hold this new found amusement has upon the audiences. Certain houses have become genuine social centers where neighborhood groups may be found any evening of the week; where the "regulars" stroll up and down the aisles between acts and visit friends, and where the farsighted proprietor has learned the names of the children and remembers them with a friendly pat on the head.

In New York city alone there are some 350 motion picture theaters with daily audiences of a quarter of a million or more and a Sunday attendance of half a million. Chicago entertains daily some 200,000 people in its 345 picture shows and Philadelphia's 158 nickleodeons claim audiences of 150,000 every day of the week.

Replies to letters sent by the writer to the principal cities of the country, combined with statistics compiled in *Insurance Engineering* for April, show that in 118 leading cities of the country there are 1,987 moving-picture exhibitions. A statement of the number who attend all the exhibitions in the country would be a mere guess, but 4,000,000 a day is given as a conservative estimate.

Two-thirds of the entire theater-going public entertained by this "infant industry" with its \$50,000,000 of invested capital and its 190 miles of films daily thrown upon the screen of 7,000 nickleodeons—this in round, bare figures is the extent of the new amusement that has sprung up within a decade and become popular only within four or five years. Its interest to social workers is apparent; for the great majority of moving picture au-



The films at the top and bottom of these pages are printed through the courtesy of the Edison Mfg. Co.



diences are made up of those who have little opportunity for other wholesome recreation. What are the possibilities of an amusement popular enough to attract twice as many people a year as the ten million who see professional baseball? And what should be the attitude of the social worker toward this new-found recreation?

In his new book, *Product and Climax*, Simon N. Patten draws a typical picture of a sleepy New England village — the one side of the street, deserted, dark and forbidding, with church and school and library; the other side, where the people are at play, blaring and glaring with trumpeting phonographs, and nickleodeons styled by Professor Patten "the first cheap amusement to occupy the economic plane that the saloon has so long exclusively controlled." He says:

"Its enormous popularity is proof that

it appeals to the foundation qualities of men. It is moreover upbuilding, for the pictures of exciting adventure rouse the

imagination and concentration which have lapsed in humdrum toil. It is accused of immoral suggestion: the suggestion, however, is chiefly in the wording of the titles, and the real test of immorality, which is destruction or construction of power, altogether fails. . . .

To close the moving picture theater would be to leave the five-cent pleasure seekers with no alternative but the saloon or the street."

This is one man's opinion of the value of motion pictures. Others — social workers, ministers and city officials, — believe that their influence is not for good — that they take money that might be better spent otherwise,

that they are breeders of crime and immorality and, to quote one correspondent (he is writing of their influ-



THEATRE UNIQUE, NEW YORK.





ence on children) "they are fleeting, shallow, and destructive of relish for strong, deep, continued thought in quiet." A writer in a large western city says, "The beginnings of crime are developed here and the absence of parents at the shows causes downfall and ruin." An investigator in a city of western New York writes that the shows stimulate thefts and become the lounging places for perverts, and still another asks, "What do you think is to be the effect on the future of all this craze to be amused and to find amusement in such vapid stuff as most of these pictures are?"

This report comes from a New Jersey mill town: "While there is nothing morally degrading about them there is nothing inspiring or elevating. The places are an education in mediocrity, and while not harmful for the grown person whose tastes are of the cheap order, it is too bad that school children should become delighted with the same cheap show."

Indictments are common enough. What of some of the possibilities of the business?

The educational and scientific value of moving pictures is just beginning to be realized. The People's Institute, New York, suggests their introduction into the public schools to give the children graphic presentations of historical events, the growth of plants, the habits of animals, methods of industry and means of transportation. Some interesting and instructive films recently produced by a New York company show a trip through the Bronx Zoo with stops before the cages of different animals. This branch of

photography has made still greater advance in England where thousands of feet of film trace the steps in organic and animal life from micro-organisms, up through insects and reptiles to birds and mammals. Several New York exhibitors have offered to throw open their houses for a few hours on Saturday in order that certain classes from the schools may see the educational films.

Last July the Bijou Dream in Boston, one of the theaters in the Keith circuit, was turned over to a new management. It had been conducted as a moving picture house since February, 1908, but with the change of management came a change in program. Besides the film service contracted for from the rental exchange, exclusive reels are made by the theater's own operators. The customary, sentimental, illustrated song has been omitted from the program and trained singers have been substituted. "Illustrated talks" are features and aside from the travel and historical pictures, films with social bearings have been successfully produced. The Boston Trade School for Girls, The District Nursing Association, The Industries of Quincy and School Gardens are among the subjects. Other departments are Current Events in Pictures and Daily News in Brief, consisting of pictured paragraphs of municipal, civic, social, educational, literary and dramatic interests. The Bijou Dream has a weekly attendance of 20,000 and in spite of a lack of blood and thunder and the absence of the lovelorn soldier and his dying sweetheart, the theater is a practical business proposition. "It is all so very interesting,"





writes the manager, "and such wonderful things are possible in the future, that there is no end when one begins to talk of possibilities."

In Paris in the *Opera Comique*, moving pictures are sometimes used in place of the old time scenery, Rostand and Paul Hervieu have written moving picture plays and many of the French films exhibited in this country were posed by the best actors of that country. Bernhardt and Rejane have acted before the camera and one Parisian theater has used motion pictures in the *Götterdämmerung* to illustrate the fall of Valhalla. Sweden has already endowed a moving picture theater for presenting historical scenes.

Fourteenth street, New York, the Rialto of twenty-five years ago, has become the hot bed of moving picture shows. Only one burlesque house remains. Five of the larger shows can accommodate 1,000 persons an hour and are open from ten in the morning until midnight. Opera seats, sloping floors and uniformed ushers, all lend the appearance of a real theater. Such shows as these, and they are not uncommon in the larger cities, point the way to the introduction of first-class moving picture houses at regular theater prices where programs in life-like tints may be given to "Broadway" audiences. And one important development that will follow the building of the better class houses is the gradual abandonment of ill-ventilated dark and dangerous store shows on which public odium has rightly centered. Agitation against this class of shows has resulted, however, in general improvement. Bet-

ter lighting devices have been perfected, fire exits have been enlarged, fire-proof film rooms for the picture machines installed, and the danger from conflagration reduced to a minimum. A prominent New York architect states that the fire risk in a moving picture show is not as great as in the regular theater with inflammable stage settings and opportunity for a sweep of flames through the stage to the audience. In the modern moving picture machine the roll of film is exposed to the danger of fire in just the one spot where the glare of the light strikes it. The operator runs the roll by hand power from one fire-proof box on the top of the machine to another at the bottom. Unless the film is held in front of the ray of light it cannot take fire; and an automatic device shuts off the light as soon as the operator stops winding the roll. And it is only a question of time before the non-flammable film is perfected. The article in *Insurance Engineering* shows that in 115 towns from which reports had been received, there had been minor fires in seventeen theaters, with no loss of life.

The possibilities for a still wider use of moving pictures are shown in a plan now being discussed in New York city to have open air public entertainments during "Fulton-Hudson" week which will give opportunity for thousands to witness lifelike scenes of the first trip up the river by steam.

A western film manufacturer will tour Europe this summer in an automobile equipped with a moving-picture camera operated from the dashboard, taking a sweep of pictures on both sides of the





road. Lecturers like Burton Holmes and Fred Niblo are already using moving pictures almost entirely to illustrate their travelogues.

In the Brooklyn Navy Yard a moving picture camera has been fixed on one of the government tugs for photographing speed trials, gunnery practice and manoeuvres for the Navy Board in Washington, and a plan is under consideration in the army to use motion pictures as targets for the new coast defense guns which are to be installed in all coast artillery armories around New York. The guns will be fitted with sub-caliber devices, and the moving-pictures will complete the idea of a hostile fleet steaming up the harbor.

Although these new uses and plans for motion pictures point the way to still wider educational and scientific use, the specially posed variety of films predominates today. According to the register of copyrights in Washington, about seventy per cent of the copyrighted films are specially posed. Twenty-five per cent include localities or scenes from actual life; while the remaining three or four per cent are historical, portraying McKinley's funeral, Queen Victoria's funeral, the opening of the Williamsburg Bridge, the inauguration of President Roosevelt, the installation ceremonies of President Butler, Corpus Christi procession, Orvieto, the proclamation of King Edward at St. James Palace, Prince Henry at West Point, and the like.

The recent wholesale cleaning up of the moving picture business has come from within the industry, whose attitude, assumed at first as a means of self-preser-

vation, is expressed in the *Film Index*, one of the leading moving picture journals:

The trouble lies in the conditions which are, in themselves, wrong; so that, instead of wasting time and energy trying to compel public opinion and public officials to accept the present conditions; instead of patching up laws and municipal rules to enable the business to continue along the original lines, the time and energy should be devoted to improving the conditions which give rise to constant complaint.

In other words, the motion picture business got started wrong. Instead of struggling along on the wrong road it should be given a fresh start on the right road. Much time, trouble and money will be saved by so doing.

To begin with, the business is framed upon too cheap a basis. The majority of so-called picture theaters in this country to-day are what are termed store shows; that is, ordinary store rooms in large mercantile or tenement buildings, primarily intended for saloons, grocery stores or any of several retail businesses. The ceilings are low; the ventilation is bad and the exits such as are required for places of amusement are, in many cases, inadequate. . . . It has been a fight from the beginning against avarice and greed, but the authorities have succeeded in reducing the possibility of danger to a minimum, although there are still many places that are merely obeying the letter of the law.

It was sentiment such as this that brought about the organization of the National Board of Censorship which was proposed by New York exhibitors who realized that reform was absolutely necessary if the business was to live. The unfriendly attitude of the city officials had made the New York situation particularly acute.

The steps leading to the establishment of the board,—the cleaning up move-





NATIONAL DANCES.



THE LION HUNT.



THE POWDER MAGAZINE.



ANDERSEN'S FAIRY TALES.



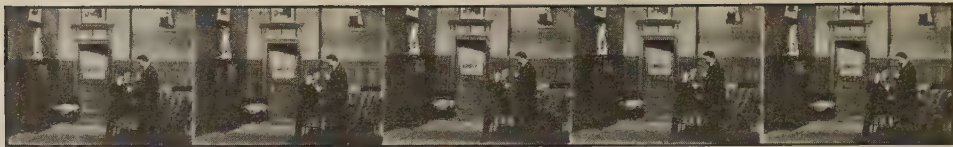
"GOOD CHEER IN THE MONASTERY."



"HERCULES THE ATHLETE."

FROM COMEDY TO TRAGEDY.

The familiar rough and tumble pictures that have for years occupied the screens are being rapidly superseded by films of more dramatic character. The pictures on this page are printed through the courtesy of the Great Northern Film Company of Copenhagen.



ment from within, the split among the manufacturers, the organization of the patents company and the independents, the war between the "octopus" trust and the downtrodden "outsiders"—all these form an interesting prelude to the present hearty co-operation between the board and manufacturers, exchanges and exhibitors, both licensed and unlicensed.

The so-called trust, the Motion Picture Patents Company, was organized to protect patent rights claimed by various constituent companies, and to protect the exhibitors licensed by that company. This combination has actually resulted in increased competition, not only within the patents company itself (the manufacturers within the trust are each bidding for the exhibitor's business), but also among the independents. Three new American companies have been started within the last month and several European manufacturers have found a market in this country.

The formation of the Motion Picture Patents Company in February, 1909, was the first effectual attempt at organization. This corporation originally composed of seven manufacturers, two foreign and five American, is now made up of nine of the largest American and European manufacturers. The patents company which controls a series of patents on cameras, lenses and machines, leases its films to licensed exchanges which agree to use only those films supplied by that company and bind themselves to a standing weekly order of pictures allowing competition within the company. The exchanges in turn rent the films to licensed exhibitors who pay a two dollar

weekly tax to the patents company for the privileges accompanying the license and agree to rent films from licensed exchanges alone.

The independents are either organized under the International Projecting and Producing Company which is agent for a score of manufacturers, mostly European, or exist as separate concerns. They sell their pictures outright to the rental exchanges under no fixed agreement as to the number to be bought weekly. Nor are the exhibitors using independent pictures subject to the weekly tax levied by the patents company. A hot combat for control of the industry is going on between these two factions and bitter as is the business feeling, both patents company and independents are working with the Board of Censorship within New York for better pictures and better buildings. The patents company has already extended the censorship nationally.

At first the manufacturers were not so easily convinced of the value of an outside board of censorship which, they thought might exercise but little discrimination in film cutting. But an agreement was reached between manufacturers, exhibitors and the advocates of the proposed new board and on March 26 the first meeting of the Board of Censorship was held. With the newly formed board sat a manufacturers' committee apparently prepared to hear wholesale recommendations for cutting or entirely omitting certain pictures. Since its first meeting the board has sat four times a week and of the fifty-five miles of pictures examined about three miles have been censored which means a destruction of about \$10,000 worth of films.





The board has not cataloged its objections and does not taboo every scene of crime or wrongdoing simply because it is a scene of crime or wrongdoing, but rather bases its decisions on the general effect a picture will have on an audience. Scenes of burglary and kidnapping have passed the board as well as a famous prize fight that attracted the attention of the world a few months ago; while a French falcon hunt in detail, a bull fight, four kidnapping pictures and numerous scenes of suicide crime have been thrown out entirely. Nearly always a film can be saved by judicious pruning or by the substitution of explanatory titles. For instance, one beautifully colored French picture depicted the clever rascality of the famous French criminal Cartouche. Here was a film which had cost the manufacturers \$3,500 and was already on the American market. The board censored the realistic pickpocket scenes and recommended that certain other portions be omitted. The manufacturers cut out over 100 feet of film and the picture was saved; to the great relief of the American agent.

The manufacturers are co-operating in every way with the board, now that they know the fair viewpoint of the censors and it is highly important that local boards of censorship do not interfere with the work of the national board. Local censorship, which may be forced on the picture business will be destructive rather than constructive, and will become an endless nuisance to the manufacturers and showmen.

Incidentally, it will not serve to protect the public, for two reasons: First, the supply of pictures is national, they pass from place to place; they arrive today and are exhibited in twenty neighborhoods to-morrow. Even ceaseless vigilance by local authorities will not suffice to keep the crude or evil picture out. Second, the kind of haphazard censorship which is alone possible locally, will fail to exert the reaction on the output

of pictures—the stimulus toward better and better pictures—which is after all the most valuable part of a successful censorship.

A plan for effective national censorship could be worked out in this way: Let the national board concern itself solely with the censorship of pictures before they are issued; let the local boards in various cities, take care of conditions peculiarly local but do no censoring on their own initiative. The local boards would be auxiliaries of the national board, and would delegate someone to represent them on that body. Thus, there would be in New York (the strategic point) the national board, with its New York auxiliary and in other cities, appropriate local auxiliaries.

About the make-up of the national board. It consists of a governing body composed of representatives of public organizations and an executive committee on censorship on which are two representatives from the Association of Moving Picture Exhibitors of the State of New York, two district school superintendents and a member of the People's Institute. The only paid member is the secretary. The board censors about forty-five pictures a week before they are sent to the film exchanges. Through voluntary assistance it also censors the vaudeville features of moving picture shows and inspects the structural conditions of buildings in which the exhibitions are housed. Any show with a membership in the association of exhibitors can be urged to improve its exits or its seating capacity under the penalty of expulsion, and in addition all the shows must conform to the license requirements.

Aside from the new pictures that come weekly before the board, there are thousands of old subjects in different exchanges scattered throughout the country which ought to be withdrawn; but like the many "best sellers" among books their day will be short and dusty shelves will make effective censors.



Contrasted to the effort being made by manufacturers, exchanges and exhibitors to better the business is the condemnatory attitude of the city government of New York, an attitude typical in a large way of the viewpoint of many other municipalities. When moving pictures became popular about five years ago, there was little official supervision in New York city. Licenses to open shows were either lacking entirely or easily obtained through a corrupt License Department which gradually closed in on the moving picture people and demanded all sorts of exorbitant fees for the privilege of conducting their exhibitions. No matter what the sanitary or structural conditions of the buildings, anyone could procure a license if he had the money to pay for it. In the winter of 1908 the License Bureau graft was exposed, and after a three weeks' inquiry the chief of the bureau was discharged and various minor officials were jailed.

The clean up in the License Bureau was not, however, the beginning of easy sailing for the moving picture proprietors. The unfriendly attitude of the city government towards the business culminated on the day before Christmas, 1908, when Mayor McClellan summarily ordered closed every moving picture exhibition in New York city. No distinction was made; good and bad came under the ban and some 350 nickleodeons representing thousands of dollars' capital were closed. The many picture proprietors had no difficulty in getting out an injunction and the action was not pressed by the mayor. But the attitude of the city towards the moving picture business has put an effectual damper on its spread in New York. On May 1, when the city licenses ran out, many were not renewed and the mayor refused to grant music hall licenses to moving picture shows.

According to present statutes many picture exhibitions came under the "common show" clause which calls for an annual fee of twenty-five dollars. This li-

cense can be revoked at the pleasure of the License Bureau. The music hall license, which protects all regular theaters, costs \$500 and can be revoked only by process of law. The latest move of the city government came on May 17, when the mayor ordered that Sunday licenses be refused to "common shows," in contravention to Justice Carr's recent decision that six day licenses are illegal.

The reason for the attitude that the city authorities of New York take towards all classes of moving picture shows has not been explained. That there are many badly lighted, poorly ventilated, undesirable shows, there is no question. The exhibitors acknowledge this and are as anxious as any to close them up; in fact apparently more anxious than the city authorities who allow them to continue in business. Reasons for the stand that the municipality has taken towards the nickleodeons are almost as numerous as are the exhibitors with opinions on the subject. The Ministers' Association and its plea for Sunday closing, the influence of a strong chain of local vaudeville houses, the aftermath of the License Bureau scandal, the power of certain protected moving picture exhibitions, the city's belief that it is thoroughly in the right, unwise and stubborn impulse—these are some of the many explanations for the seemingly unjust attitude of the city authorities.

The New York situation is by no means unique. Moving picture shows in practically every town and city of the country are meeting with municipal opposition, deserved and undeserved.

Cities of the continent have found a way to provide for the people's play through the social use of public parks. Streets are turned into playgrounds and open spaces for rest and recreation invite the workers. Here in America we have not found time to devote to such things; land is too valuable and municipal co-operation is lacking. Professor Patten says in his new book that the European

way is best—"that physical sport out of doors would be the natural corrective of the sedentary life of indoor workers." But what are we in America going to do until there is a "geographical reorganization of our cities fundamental enough to replace whole areas of dwellings with parks, narrow streets by boulevards, shipping ways with boating courses and construct gymnasiums and baths extensive enough for many thousand people?"

Is there not a reason here for a more constructive attitude on the part of city authorities and the public in general? If parks and playgrounds are lacking here is a temporary substitute in the commercialized street.

It will do no harm to prophesy and picture the time when the cities will do their share in providing wholesome outdoor amusement and the moving picture shows will become in reality the "people's theater."



TEN THOUSAND AT PLAY¹

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

For the third time a National Play Congress has come together, deliberated learnedly on various phases of the subject, and then stood aside to be shown how insignificant its wisdom and its affairs are in comparison with the thing itself. For play is peculiarly a thing not to be understood through talk and discussion; it must be seen, its spirit felt, its activity participated in and experienced.

So at the Pittsburgh Play Congress, May 10-14, as at Chicago in 1907 and New York in 1908, the largest value to the country, to Pittsburgh herself and to everyone in attendance at the congress, came through the great play festival. One scene may cause a big new sense of the meaning of play. At Chicago perhaps it was the zest of that group of girls who danced the highland fling, or the satisfaction of those quaint and sturdy Lithuanian women dressed in the peasant cos-

tumes so long laid aside, in playing again the folk games of their girlhood days. At New York you may have seen the impression made on hundreds of school children when an American crowd honored the beautiful old village dances shown by a group of Italian men and women from the East Side. At Pittsburgh those blind children whose faces fairly radiated the happiness of their play, or the group of Hungarian youngsters whose tall choir-master danced with the littlest girl, may have interpreted play and its meaning more essentially and inspiringly in a few moments than the addresses of a whole day's sessions.

Pittsburgh played and was proud of it. Having come face to face with her problems the past year as no other American city has done, she rejoiced in the opportunity to show the nation that she is loyal to her own better self. This was the keynote of the address on Pittsburgh

¹The play festival photographs accompanying this article are reproduced by courtesy of the *Chronicle Telegraph* of Pittsburgh.



MARCHING TO THE FESTIVAL.

in the Spirit of Play with which Miss Beulah Kennard, president of the Pittsburgh Playground Association, opened the congress; and it was the big, virile theme of the message which the city itself expressed less consciously but none the less truly in the festival. Miss Kennard told how the great industrial achievements—the work—of the city had been titanic play. The creative imagination which gave strong men satisfaction in accomplishment was in substance the same thing which gives the child absorbing interest in play. But the tragedy had been that the workers beside each furnace and machine had no fellowship in the spirit of achievement. The workers had been forgotten as citizens. How all can share in the building of the better community was impressively shown in the climax of the play festival when, after Pittsburgh's history had been portrayed dramatically, groups representing all the nationalities which make up the city's population filed in with their gifts—symbolized in national dance and folk game—to the community which claims their new loyalty.

Long before this concluding pageant, Schenley Park was thronged with children. Ten thousand from seventy schools, societies and playgrounds occupied some 100 allotted spaces, each about

ninety feet square. Each group had been left free to choose and prepare whatever activity it desired to contribute to the festival. Wandering about the greensward the spectator found one group having hurdle races and other field sports; another group dancing round a maypole; another of little children going through kindergarten circle and marching games; and many others—the majority—dancing the beautiful folk and national dances they had learned in an earlier home. or from play leaders in playgrounds or school. Many of the latter brought their own neighborhood music such as a harpist and two violinists, Italians, who came to play for the children of their neighborhood and nationality to dance the old Italian peasant steps. And the blind children, already mentioned, brought with them a blind fiddler from their own institution. While the 10,000 children played in groups, each surrounded by a crowd of interested friends and spectators, a great track and field meet was held by 2,000 boys in the athletic oval in another part of the park.

In number of participants the festival far exceeded any yet held. This nearer approach to the ideal festival in which all are participants and none spectators was made possible by the

admirable system of groupings and space allotment—an arrangement which divided spectators into small crowds surrounding each play group, instead of keeping all spectators in one large crowd at a greater distance. An interesting feature of the arrangement, too, was the co-operation of business men. The various boards of trade and the Chamber of Commerce were appealed to with the result that over two hundred business men enlisted, one in charge of each of the 100 play spaces in the park, one in charge of each trolley car transporting children to and from the festival, and others serving in various ways to make things run smoothly.

This personal co-operation of business men was part of a general spirit of common purpose which swept the city. A long-time resident declared that never before has there been anything which united so many different elements of the population.

For the culminating "Pittsburgh Pag-

eant" the whole festival throng, estimated at 30,000, gathered round a grassy square roped off on Flag Staff Hill. Entering the square between long walls of pressing humanity came the first group of school children to represent the Indian life which preceded the founding of the city. All were dressed in Indian costume. Squaws busied themselves and children played about the tepees, braves returned from the hunt, and all joined in a corn-grinding song and harvest dance. Then came the French trappers, followed by French soldiers who symbolized the establishment of Fort Duquesne by planting the French flag. British soldiers followed and the naming of the city was symbolized by the raising of the British flag in the presence of Father Pitt. The Americans representing the spirit of '76 then advanced, raised the Stars and Stripes and escorted Columbia, Father Pitt and the new spirit of Pittsburgh to a place of honor where they received the



gifts of all nations symbolized by national dances.

No one could have seen the participation of these groups of foreign people from various immigrant sections of Pittsburgh without being profoundly impressed with all it signified for the welding together of the national elements in our democracy. First came a group of Scotch children, representing an early tide of immigration. To the music of the bagpipes they danced a number of Scottish dances. Scarcely could there have been a more marked racial contrast than that between these Scotch children and the Hungarians who came last. Dressed in Hungarian peasant garb—the boys in shiny high boots, white skirts, large white sleeves and varicolored jackets—they marched around the enclosure led by the tall choirmaster and organist of a neighborhood Hungarian church. To music by five Hungarian violinists they danced the peasant dances of their home land. When the smallest boy forgot some of the steps it was a delight to see the spirit with which this strapping big man, their leader, entered into the dance as partner of the little girl, reaching down so that she could put her tiny hand in his.

To recount the charm which each nationality contributed is not possible in limited space even if paper and ink could tell it. Who will forget how proud a moment it was for the prominent Italian editor to see the big American crowd show appreciation of the dances given by the group at whose head he had marched into the enclosure. But probably that quiet Slovak priest glowed with sat-

isfaction quite as strong though with less flourish, when he watched the boys and girls of his parish in their Slovak dances and folk games. And though that Irish girl was quite alone in her jig, what a host she was in herself. The irresistible, broad smile on her face was but an accompaniment to the broader humor of her dancing feet, for if ever dancing expressed buoyant Irish wit her did.

The congress devoted much time to a consideration of festivals. The report of the committee on festivals was discussed at length, emphasis being put on the need

to make them the celebration of an idea rather than a mere carnival. In this connection it was agreed that one of the best occasions for immediate action is the Fourth of July, and the committee was asked to prepare May Day programs from the results of actual experience that will fit different sized school yards and other conditions. An important value of the festival in a cosmopolitan community was recognized in the contributions it may



LEADERS IN THE ITALIAN DANCE.

make to the whole people of old folk ceremony, this involving, among other things, a greater respect by children for the customs of their elders. Emphasis was put upon the multiplication of neighborhood as well as city festivals.

The most significant discussion of Fourth of July celebrations came in the conference of municipal delegates, at which sixty-three were present from forty-one cities. Mayor Magee, of Pittsburgh, who had invited the mayors of cities of over 5,000 people to send representatives, presided. From several localities reports were made of progress to-

ward a saner Independence Day. Perhaps the most interesting came from Springfield, Mass. One of the five delegates from that city, William Orr, told of the success that has come through doing more than merely expressing abuses by providing a festival program which last year enlisted the enthusiastic interest of the whole population. Seven years ago the movement was initiated by the city government, and for each celebration arrangements are planned by a citizens'

fireworks by Chinese citizens for one of the large evening illuminations.¹

The story of how Toledo came to abandon the old boisterous sort of celebration touched tender memories among those who had known one of the best loved men in our public life. Five years ago when the "Golden Rule Mayor," Samuel M. Jones, was at the point of death, it seemed to everyone as if a personal friend lay sick. A spontaneous feeling among all the people of the city arose that there



THE HIGH JUMP.

committee. The big feature of the day is a parade in which many organizations participate. Of especial interest is a series of floats representing the achievements of various races dwelling in the city. How unifying this celebration is may be appreciated by the significant fact that the Englishmen of Springfield took part in this sort of an Independence Day, contributing a float with a representation of the signing of the Magna Charta by King John. Another interesting instance of co-operation was a contribution of

should be a quiet Fourth. The idea has resulted in a definite provision of better ways for celebrating. A safer and better Independence Day is thus one among a host of humane legacies which a simple and big-hearted citizen left to his fellow citizens and their children.

Another special conference was that of Young Men's Christian Association officials. The mutual advantage of co-operation between the Y. M. C. A. and

¹See *Charities and The Commons* for July 11, 1908. Price 10 cents.



THE POPULAR WATER WAGON.

the playground movement was repeatedly asserted, and one definite thing proposed was a series of lectures on the playground movement before the Y. M. C. A.

summer conferences at Lake George and Lake Geneva.

Efficient playground supervision and direction was even more emphasized at



BRVES BEFORE THEIR TEPEES.



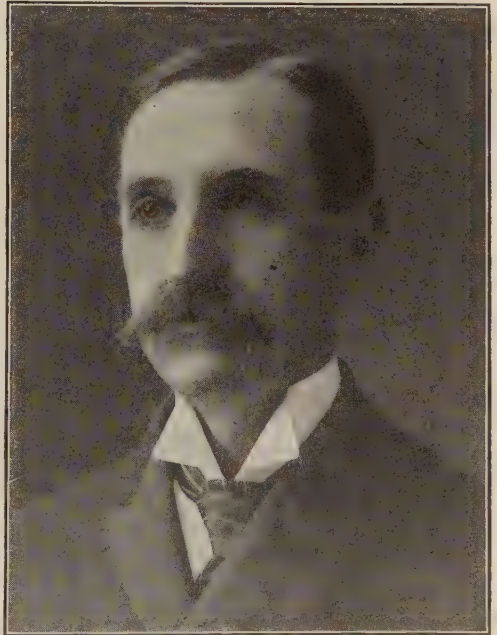
MISS BEULAH KENNARD,
President Pittsburgh Playground Association.

Pittsburgh than at last year's congress. It was the theme of the two addresses which most gripped the audience. President Luther H. Gulick, in the place of one of the evening speakers unable to attend, was at his best in a convincing exposition of the fallacy in the cry of "hands off" the child's "natural" development. He showed how in various forms of animal life the mother influence or the imitating of the common life of the species by its younger members was part of natural development; how the baby should be hugged and sung to by its mother, how—just as naturally—the play of children should be supervised on the playground. With similar force, Superintendent George E. Johnson of the Pittsburgh playgrounds advanced the idea of play supervision on biological grounds, and instanced its value by concrete illustrations from playground experience.

In line with this emphasis on efficient

supervision and direction, the most thoroughgoing committee work of the year was done by the committee on normal courses in play. A long, tentative report outlined three courses: First, a standard course for directors to be given by properly qualified institutions; second, a minor course for directors to be given by supervisors; and third, a course for grade teachers to be given in normal schools so that all teachers will have a certain minimum of information and training concerning play. The outline was considerably elaborated in such portions as could help in urgent and immediate needs for the training of directors in practical playground administration.

Growing recognition was given the playground as a social center. The discussion of this subject ranged from the ways in which the small neighborhood playground can rally adults for the welfare of their community—a topic on which Dr. Henry S. Curtis spoke—to a spirited description of the social centers being developed in the Rochester public schools, which are not playgrounds at



GEORGE E. JOHNSON,
Superintendent Playground Association.



MRS. FRANK M. ROESSING,
Vice-president Pittsburgh Playground Association.



MRS. SAMUEL AMMON,
Treasurer Pittsburgh Playground Association.



all in the ordinary sense of the word. This range of discussion served to point out that the essential in it all was the democratic civic spirit which finds various forms of expression. The stereopticon slides of the Rochester work and the strong enthusiasm of Edward J. Ward, who told the story of how it all came about, were among the inspirations of the congress.

The Pittsburgh Play Congress was a working body. Its discussions were practical and were not left in the air. For this the credit is due largely to one man, President Gulick. The service he rendered by his impartial summing up of main points and the consensus of opinion at the close of each discussion were two of the most valuable features. These special discussions were upon playground legislation, statistics, folk dancing, athletics for boys, athletics for girls, festivals, play in institutions, and playgrounds as social centers. Such interesting points were taken up as the educational value of referendum votes and legislation proposed even if defeated; the need for uniformity in statistics so as to facilitate proper understanding and comparison; the importance of providing play opportunity and leadership for children growing up under the peculiar conditions of institutional life, etc.

The report of Henry S. Curtis as secretary called attention to some interesting developments. Discussing legislation he spoke particularly of the success of the referendum in Massachusetts,

which has been reported in these columns, and of the tendency to secure state laws, which emphasizes the need for voluntary organizations of citizens on state lines. Most interesting, however, was his description of Porto Rican conditions as he has recently observed them during a visit to the island. His significant point was that the playground can play an important part in developing the energy and effectiveness of tropical populations.

Of some importance in itself, and indicative of the broad sweep of the movement for public recreation as gauged by the interests of this national Play Congress, was the passage of a resolution protesting against the proposed scheme to utilize that part of the Yosemite National Park known as the Hetch-Hetchy Valley as a water reservoir for San Francisco, when other equally good sources of supply are available.

Rochester, Boston, Los Angeles and other cities sent cordial invitations for the 1910 Play Congress, but the meeting place is to be determined later. Officers elected for the ensuing year are:

Honorary president, Jacob A. Riis, New York; president, Luther H. Gulick, New York; vice-presidents, Joseph Lee, Boston, Henry S. Curtis, Washington, Mrs. Samuel Ammon, Pittsburgh; chairman executive committee, Seth T. Stewart, New York; chairman finance committee, S. R. Guggenheim, New York; treasurer, Gustavus T. Kirby; secretary, H. S. Braucher, who leaves his work as secretary of the Portland, Me., Associated Charities, to assume the duties of his new position in the National Playground Association in New York.





RESEARCH AFLOAT

THE POLLUTION OF NEW YORK HARBOR AND THE PROBLEMS OF ITS CONTROL

GEORGE A. SOPER

PRESIDENT METROPOLITAN SEWERAGE COMMISSION OF NEW YORK

In the history of the human race few facts have been established in more positive and terrible manner than that man must not pollute the land he lives on. A clean site is fundamental to the health of a city. It is to avoid pollution of the soil that sewers are built with their innumerable ingenious plumbing attachments, and it is largely to make sewers effective as vehicles for the polluting material that public water supplies are constructed.

Before sewers came into general use in the last century the wastes were thrown into public thoroughfares, courts, parks and market places, to the great inconvenience of citizens and injury to the public health. It was the introduction of sewerage systems in the last century that made a sanitary disposition of the wastes

possible and opened the way for the healthy municipalities of today.

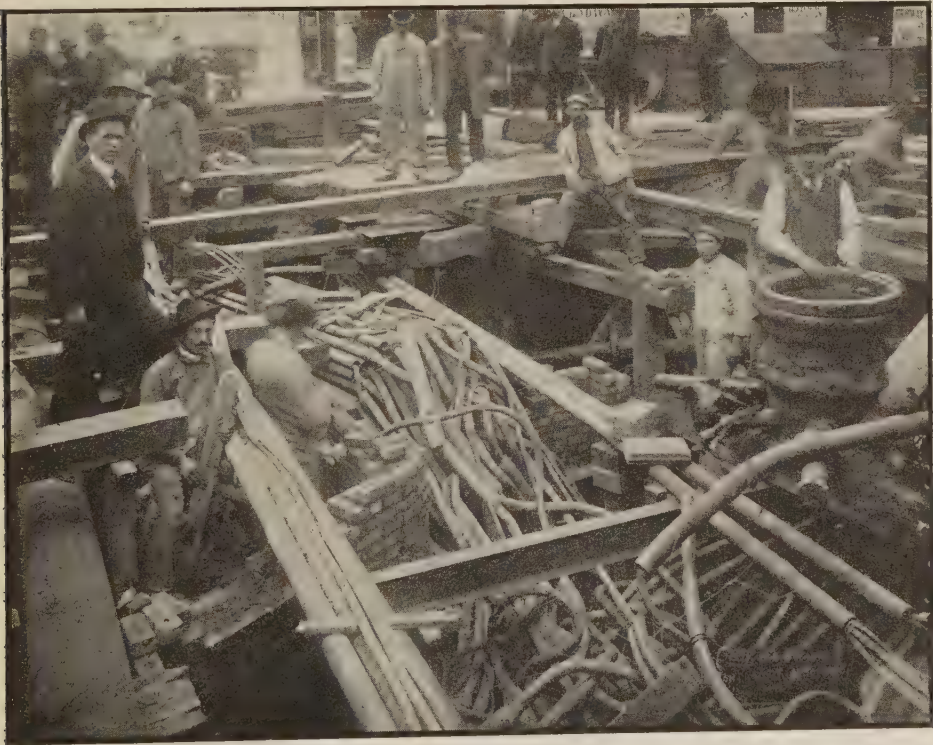
A sewerage system, like any other device for disposing of human wastes, should be capable of fulfilling two requirements. These requirements are, first, that the wastes shall be removed promptly from their points of origin and, second, that they shall be permanently disposed of without danger or offense to anyone. Most sewerage systems answer the first requirement, but not the second. In this matter architects are ahead of engineers. Modern plumbing removes the sewage from the houses where it is produced in a manner which leaves little to be desired, but the methods commonly employed for finally disposing of the sewage are as crude as can well be imagined.

The prevention of soil pollution, which is the chief function of sewers, is frequently accompanied by water pollution, for it is the cheap and easy thing to discharge sewage into a river or other natural body of water. In fact, many prominent engineers regard large rivers and arms of the sea as natural sewers, and design their sewerage works to discharge into such bodies of water whenever possible. But their capacity for receiving filth is not the chief function of natural bodies of water. It is shortsighted and unwise policy so to regard them. Rivers, lakes and harbors have a prior claim to be considered in their relation to health and commerce.

The public is tolerably familiar with the evil consequences which have resulted from the discharge of sewage into rivers and lakes. Epidemics of typhoid, the most extensive and intensive in history, have been produced by the contamination

of drinking water by sewage. The disposal of sewage by discharging it into tidal harbors is the latest direction in which this objectionable practice has attracted attention. Some of the most notorious public nuisances of which there is record have been so caused.

In Europe, the ports of London, Belfast, Dublin, Hamburg and some others are protected by works that divert the sewage which otherwise would contaminate the water. In America, the city of Boston has united with about twenty-five other municipalities in its vicinity and constructed works by which the sewage of the metropolitan district is carried to sea. The sewage of Providence, R. I., is purified before being discharged into the harbor. It is said that Philadelphia has been given five years in which to perfect plans for keeping all its sewage out of its harbor. The city of Baltimore is completing



STRUCTURES BENEATH THE STREETS OF NEW YORK.

Private corporations have the power to move sewers aside to suit their convenience. This has frequently been done to the injury of the sewage system.



works by which the city's sewage will be highly purified before being discharged into the Chesapeake.

New York is the last to take action in regard to this important question. At present the sewage of the metropolitan district, representing the most offensive and dangerous wastes of a population of about 5,000,000 inhabitants, is discharged into the tidal waters without plan or policy or legal restriction of any kind in the interests of public health and welfare, and engineering projects are on foot which, if carried out, will increase enormously the polluting matter entering the harbor. The growth of population in the metropolitan district may double in thirty or forty years the polluting matter which must be disposed of.

Already evidence of sewage exists in New York bay and especially in the smaller arms and tributaries of the har-

bor. This evidence is unmistakable. Hundreds of analyses have been made which show the chemical and bacteriological condition of the water; but the senses of sight and smell furnish proofs that need no scientific support. The excrement of the people floats about upon the surface of the water in plain sight and disappears only when the mechanical action of wave and water have done their work. It is this water which flows along the docks and piers with their thousands of toilers by day and their greater number of pleasure seekers by night. It is the air from this water that enters the open windows of the city's hospitals, most of which are within sight of the harbor. Two million baths are taken in this water annually, and each year over 500,000 bushels of oysters are gathered from the harbor. Most of the many-storied, many-peopled office buildings

erected on the most valuable land in the world are within a half mile of the bay.

It is evident that the present conditions of pollution, objectionable as they are, will become more objectionable as time progresses, unless careful provision is made for a sanitary disposition of the sewage, for the quantity of polluting matter will increase with the population, while the amount of diluting water into which it flows will remain the same.

The amount of polluting matter will increase for another reason. Municipalities which lie at points removed by many miles from the harbor will select New York bay as an outlet for their sewage. They are doing so now. There is already in existence one such outlet which drains a populated territory of about thirty-seven square miles. Another project of the same sort is in course of construction and a third is ready to be carried out if the objections of New York can be overcome. This last proposition is of unprecedented magnitude. It is intended to carry the sewage of the cities of Paterson, Newark and about thirty other municipalities to New York bay

and discharge it near the foot of the colossal Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World!

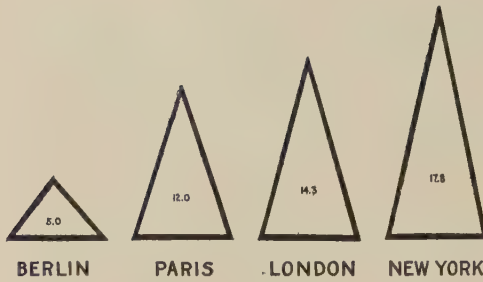
Alarmed at the increasing pollution of the harbor, the state of New York appointed a commission in 1903 to investigate and consider whether the discharge of sewage into the waters of New York bay and vicinity was becoming a menace to public health and welfare, and if so, what should be done by the state. The body thus brought into existence was called the New York Bay Pollution Commission. It consisted of the health commissioner of the state and four well known sanitary engineers. This commission existed for three years and made two reports, which were published but are now out of print.

The reports showed that the harbor was already polluted, as measured by usual sanitary standards. Lack of central control over the discharge of sewage had brought about a number of extensive local nuisances. The streams known as the Passaic River, the Bronx, Newtown and Gowanus creeks were notoriously contaminated.



DANGERS TO HEALTH.

Oystering, fishing and bathing in the sewage polluted water of upper New York bay.



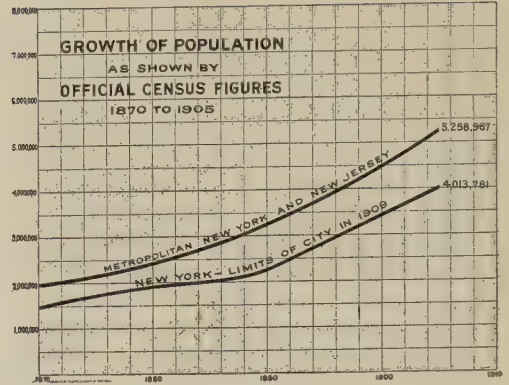
Typhoid Fever Death Rates

Berlin	5.0 deaths per 100,000 population	(Average 1901-1905,
Paris	12.0	" " " " " 1901-1905
London	14.3	" " " " " 1891-1900
New York	17.8	" " " " " 1893-1902

The waters of the harbor, considered as a whole, could, apparently, assimilate more sewage than they were receiving, but it was only a question of time when their digestive capacity would be overtaxed, and then the consequences would be very serious. The commission pointed out that the peculiar situation and functions of the bays and rivers of the port, in addition to their commercial uses, made it necessary to maintain the waters in an unusually sanitary condition for a tidal harbor. The welfare of the people of the whole metropolitan district of New York was shown to depend upon the condition of the waters.

For the first time the public was informed of the conditions under which the oyster supply of the city was produced. It was shown that oysters were grown, stored and fattened within sight of New York's densest center of population, and with apparent disregard of the nearby sewer outfalls. Samples of water, oysters and clams were analyzed and proved to be polluted when taken from water contaminated by sewage.

The powers and duties of the New York Bay Pollution Commission were



not sufficient to enable that board to carry its labors to their logical conclusion. Its reports are of service more because they call attention to the conditions which result from the discharge of sewage than for any opinions given with regard to remedies. In fact the commission acknowledged its inability to form such opinions and recommended that another board be created to carry the investigations further and devise a comprehensive plan or policy for protecting the harbor against excessive and needless contamination.

This recommendation was carried out when Mayor McClellan, of New York, as a result of mandatory legislation by the state, appointed a board of engineers called the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission. This board, which was appointed in 1906, will complete its labors by May, 1910. It will have spent about \$90,000. The commission's studies cover the territory within about twenty miles of the New York City Hall, embracing about 100 municipalities with an aggregate population of some 5,000,000.

Of the members of the commission one has long been associated with extensive



Oscillation of Water in New York Harbor

The water and sewage oscillate back and forth before going out to sea.

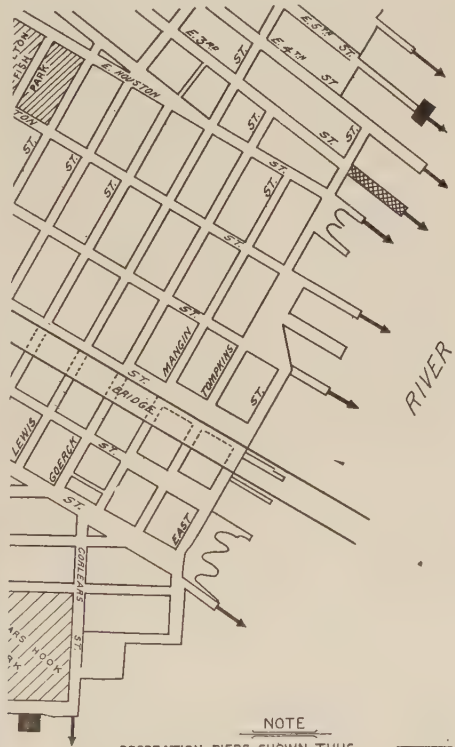
The average progress in the Hudson River is 2.2 miles per day


" " " " Upper New York Bay is 1.0 " " "


About three thousand analyses of water have been made in order to obtain information concerning the removal of





sewage by tidal currents and the capacity of the harbor waters for assimilating or



RECREATION PIERS SHOWN THUS.....

FLOATING BATHS....."....."

SEWER OUTLETS....."....."

PUBLIC PARKS....."....."

THE EAST RIVER WATER FRONT AT COR-
LEARS HOOK.



Sewer discharging beneath a pier bulk-head.

digesting sewage. Samples have been collected from boats chartered by the commission. The location of the points from which the samples have been taken has been recorded by means of observations with sextants, and the information plotted upon charts.

Errors usually inseparable from the analytical technique of water analyses have been eliminated as far as practicable. In many instances the analyses have been begun at the moment when the samples were collected in order to remove the chance of alteration in composition which polluted water if kept in bottles is likely to undergo. The large number of analyses gives assurance that average as well as extreme conditions have been observed.

Analyses have been made of water collected at the surface and at various depths down to the bottom of the deepest channels. Courses across and parallel with the channels have been laid off and samples collected along them through varying stages of tide and at all seasons of year. Solid matter from the harbor bottom has been subjected to chemical, physical and bacteriological analyses in order to determine the presence and relative quantity of sewage debris present, and the circumstances under which it accumulates. To gather these samples special dredging apparatus has been devised, including a dredge capable of collecting samples of solids many feet below the surface of the bottom without mixture with any liquid or solid material through which they are raised.

It has been necessary to establish an analytical laboratory for the commission's work. At first a laboratory was set up in the Aquarium Building through the courtesy of the New York Zoological Society. There chemical and bacteriological work was done for about six months. The present laboratory is situated on a pier owned by the city, and controlled by the Dock Department.

This laboratory turns out a large amount of data from the experiments constantly in progress. Owing to the movement of the tide and the influence of the Hudson, the composition of the harbor waters varies constantly, and it is part of the laboratory work to keep con-

stant watch of the salinity, turbidity and color of the water. At a dozen points in and near New York bay, stations have been established where the proportions of sea water and land water are determined several times each day.

The principal boat of the commission is a steamer about sixty-five feet long and of generous beam and draught. It is fitted up with apparatus and dredging facilities and is in reality a floating laboratory. With its scientific equipment and well trained crew, it can remain continuously at work for several days upon the harbor when some special line of observation or experiment demands such service.

The flow of tidal water through the harbor has been one of the principal matters to which the commission has given attention. The subject has been studied in part in co-operation with government investigators, but the currents have been observed chiefly in an independent manner by the commission's own staff. Current meters such as are used in gauging the flow of fresh water streams, are quite unsuitable for measuring the flow of tidal water because of its corroding action, so other methods of estimating the current velocity had to be devised. The principal apparatus used consists essentially of two crossed sheet-iron wings hung by wires to a freely floating buoy provided with a small flag. These winged floats, submerged about five feet, have been allowed to wander about the harbor wherever the currents carried them; their location being determined at frequent intervals by means of sextants.

Extended studies are being made of the existing sewerage systems within twenty miles of New York—the conditions at the outfalls, the construction, capacity and state of repair of the sewers themselves, and the alterations made in them through the construction of electric conduits, water pipes, gas mains and other works beneath the streets. The plans of the authorities in charge of sewers and sewage disposal in the 100 municipalities in the vicinity of New York where any plans exist, are being carefully considered with reference not only to local needs, but with due regard to the

interests of the whole metropolitan district.

The commission is making estimates of the present and probable future distribution of population in the metropolitan district, based on existing statistics and estimates of growth made by Dr. Walter Laidlaw of the Federation of Churches, John R. Freeman, one of the consulting engineers for the additional water supply now being constructed for New York, and others. The commission must make its own estimates as close as possible, since an accurate forecast of population is desirable if future quantities of sewage are to be estimated and the necessary sewers provided for. In connection with these statistics of population the conditions which have produced the growth of New York, London, Paris, Berlin and other large cities and aggregates of cities are being carefully taken into consideration.

The health of the public, in so far as it is related to the condition of the harbor waters, is being studied by methods which are an advance upon those generally considered sufficiently conclusive in sanitary investigations. These methods cannot be described here, but they will be recorded in the formal report which the commission is to make within the year.

By January of this year the investigations of the metropolitan commission had progressed to a point where its more constructive side could be taken up. The ground covered in the studies made by the New York Bay Pollution Commission had been reviewed and supplemented, so that a more thorough knowledge had been obtained as to the need of improvements, and opinions reached as to the



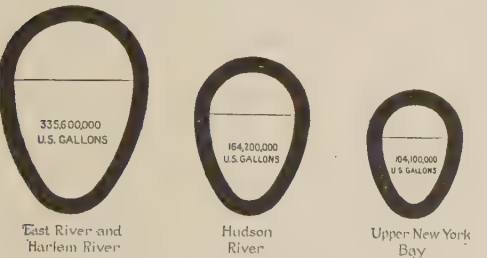
How trunk sewers are ventilated into the street in the financial district.

consequences which might be expected in course of time in case no plan for protecting and improving the quality of the harbor water was adopted.

It remained to consider the practicability of various methods of protection. This was to be the most difficult part of the commission's work. It is progressing now and its completion will mark the close of the commission's existence next May.

It would be futile within the time given the commission to attempt to make detailed plans and estimates for the engineering works which are now required or may in future be needed to maintain a clean harbor. What is expected of the commission is a clear and comprehensive statement of what should be done to keep the waters so free from sewage that they shall not be offensive or a danger to health. This statement should suggest a practicable plan that is large enough, and yet sufficiently definite, to guide the city of New York and the municipalities in its vicinity in adopting individual sewerage systems and methods of disposal. It may be desirable for New York and New Jersey to join in forming one permanent metropolitan sewerage district and commission.

Unfortunately the prospect for co-operation between the two states is not encouraging at the present moment. The Passaic Valley Sewerage Commission, representing a large part of the metropolitan population of New Jersey, is attempting to carry out a project of its own to which the people of New York state have repeatedly registered ob-



Quantity of Sewage Discharged into New York Harbor	
East River and Harlem River	335,600,000 U.S. gallons per day
Hudson River	164,200,000 " " " "
Upper New York Bay	104,100,000 " " " "

jection. The matter is now in the Supreme Court of the United States, where the insistence of New Jersey has forced New York to take it. It is likely to prove a long and expensive case for both sides. New Jersey seems unwilling to join New York in studying the needs of the harbor. Twice the secretary of state of New Jersey has written to the governor of New Jersey inviting co-operation in the investigations which the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission is making, but without meeting that response which the importance of the subject merits.

With respect to the nature and extent of the engineering works which may ultimately be required to protect the harbor, it is clear that the only obstacle in the way of keeping all sewage out of the water lies in the large sum of money which the necessary works would cost. How much the city of New York and its neighboring municipalities can afford to pay for a clean harbor must be carefully considered.

An admixture of sewage which would make a harbor unsuitable as a source of drinking water may be permissible when the water is used only for purposes of navigation. The harbor of New York is neither a source of drinking water nor merely a highway of commerce, but in some respects it partakes of the character of both. The harbor water is used to a considerable extent for the cultivation of oysters, generally eaten raw, and the sanitary circumstances under which these oysters are grown and prepared for market is a matter of vital concern. Millions of baths are taken in the waters of the harbor every year, and it is probable that few bathers immerse themselves without taking some of the polluted water into their mouths.

There are no sanitary standards in existence with which the commission can compare the condition of New York harbor. It must create its own standards and this can only be done by careful and painstaking consideration.

BOSTON'S LEVEL BEST

THE "1915 MOVEMENT" AND THE WORK OF CIVIC ORGANIZING FOR WHICH IT STANDS

PAUL U. KELLOGG

DIRECTOR OF THE PITTSBURGH SURVEY

"Haymarket—1886" had an ominous ring to it in the history of Chicago. It stood for lowering hatreds which broke out in riot in the city's square, for misunderstandings as hard and trampled in as the cobblestones. It stood for abuses, affecting great sections of the community, which bruised men's lives and made their thinking blood-shot; and which the social interpretation and civic movements of twenty-three years have only gradually and successively brought to public recognition as abuses. It put in jeopardy those lengthening strong-spun skeins of productive forces which were making the city great—energies that were untrammelled as never before in the production of wealth, workers that carried to the West the venturesomeness of the emigrant nations, trade channels that

laid down the crops of the prairie states at the city's gates. It jeopardized these things because the woof of social relations and adjustments that was counted upon to hold this warp together was feeble and inadequate, and because so little of invention and constructive determination, when all was said and done, was going into weaving the fabric of civic and economic life. Government was there in its repressive aspects, but there was no vision of the city as a compelling climax—there were no tangible goods imbedded in it to win the loyalty of a man's working years such as the settlers had seen ahead in their homesteads and cleared acres.

"Haymarket—1915" has an impudent, business-like ring to it. It is nothing more nor less than the number of the

telephone buzzer of a committee of Boston men who have set about organizing their city for a six-year venture in democracy. They have cribbed the old Puritan faculty for visualizing heaven and hell, and instead of letting things drift, of doing them piecemeal, or discoursing vaguely of a receding Utopia, they have set about seeing what is practically possible for the commercial capital of New England by 1915. And they have enough confidence in their undertaking to risk open failure by inviting the world to come and see—to scoff or be convinced—exactly seventy-two months from date. Their invitation reads not to a white or rainbow city of stucco buildings to be torn down or burned while alley dwellings and dark tenement bedrooms stay on, but to

a display of Boston itself—of Boston's government and finances; of the streets and parks and schools; of public buildings and civic centers; of shops and factories and stores; of their construction, equipment, and operation; of the housing and general living conditions of the people; of institutions for the help of the sick, the injured and the unfortunate; of every factor in the life of a great city. And this display is to be one of actual things, just as they exist and are used in the community's daily life, its visitors being taken from exhibit to exhibit in automobiles or on street cars, which in themselves shall be an exhibit of the best achievement in their own ways.

They hold three ends to be bound up with each other:—Boston's prosperity, its civic development, and its social regeneration; and to these ends, they expect to work out, as the permanent outcome of their six-years' venture, at least the frame-work for a comprehensive plan of future growth. Their faith is that even our oldest cities have not begun to utilize their resources as centers of production; that conscious united efforts in city-building are needed to develop some of them, and they count the spirit, well-being and industrial relations of the working people of Boston to be as large a factor in the future as the equipment of the harbor, as the businesslike ordering of the city government, or as the market relations of Boston wholesalers to the New England trade. They propose, in fine

that it shall be possible for a willing worker, earning an average wage, to live, himself and his family, healthfully and comfortably; to bring up his children in good surroundings; to educate them so that they may be truly useful, good citizens; and to lay aside enough to provide for himself and his wife in their old age. A city which provides less than that directly must make up for the deficiency in a more costly, indirect way; there is no escaping this alternative.

There is considerable of the "hurrah, boys" element in the project, and careful folk, who lived through the fizzle of Boston's Old Home Week, may be warranted in shaking their heads until the movement, to put it to its own pragmatic test, has "cashed in" in accomplishing definite things. Adding "bub" to "hub" isn't going to better the old port of Massachusetts Bay Colony. And sceptical fellow townsmen of Mr. Thomas Lawson and Mrs. Jack Gardner may want to bide their time in judging the announced purposes of other eager public servants;—especially when there is such a cheerful infusion in the project of things which long have been tabooed, except among those eye-specialists who make fortunes out of billboards, those psychologists who run our ward politics, and those students of self-interest who do log-rolling in our city councils and our legislatures. For the 1915 directors are outspoken in their belief, in the first place, that business undertakings have a great stake in municipal progress and social reform, and should be enlisted openly and creatively in it; and in the second place that the common impulses of the great mass of the people are, in the long run, right, and that if gathered up and organized as never before, these impulses will make up a constructive power in civic life beyond anything now at the command of the agencies of righteousness. To engage the first without the second would be to work for business rather than for Boston, which after all is not a ledger account but a community of half a million people; to engage the second without the first, would be to undertake a huge contract for civic reconstruction without utilizing the builders who in industrial and commercial life have proved their capacity to plan and organize and act. These two great social forces, then,



HENRY ABRAHAMS.

For fifteen years secretary Boston Central Labor Union.

they propose to lay hold of in organizing Boston during the next six years; much as a production engineer would organize a manufacturing plant.

The 1915 propaganda cannot in fact be understood except in its relation to a group of large civic undertakings in which some of the same men have had a hand. Consider the City Club. In Faneuil Hall and the Common, Boston never lacked in the old days for a meeting place where townsmen could get together and air their grievances and aspirations. With the development of a great cosmopolitan city, there has come increasing segregation. The old New Englanders have retreated more and more to the residential towns, Newton Brookline, etc.; the Irish immigrants of fifty years ago are a majority in the city proper; the university atmosphere of Cambridge, just across the Charles, is the antithesis of that of the Italian and Jewish quarters of the North and West ends. These racial changes have been coupled with the opening of great religious and economic gulfs in the community life. The City Club has dealt with the fundamental idea that the power of the grafter lies in his ability to appeal to prejudices—racial, religious, class—which can always be appealed to when men do not know each other. The basic method of the City Club has been to put a roof over the old conception of the Common, and to get men together there with their feet under the tables. The ini-

tial membership was representative of eighty organizations, such as labor unions, exclusive clubs, business bodies and political groups. There was a period of difficulties, when people scoffed at the idea; it would never work, they said. But it has. There is nothing in America that works quite like it. Go there any noon, and watch the men filtering into the score of luncheon rooms, which open out of each other, in three old residences on Beacon street. Those men round that table are architects; these, the heads of charitable organizations; beyond, a bunch of young physicians. At night it is the same, newspaper men, labor leaders, corporation lawyers, college professors, ward bosses, bankers, making up the groups about the lobbies, or around



LOUIS D. BRANDEIS.

Attorney, president Public Franchise League, originator Massachusetts savings bank insurance plan.

the beer steins. The membership is 3,000. The club has made for mutual understanding and undone much bickering. Yankee and Irish break bread together as never before; and its luncheons, like the famous tea-party, play a part in the town's history.

To get men to fraternize paved the way for common action; but to get action, it was necessary to get team-play between the efficient men of the community. In Boston, as in many other cities, old time business bodies had been ossifying. There were three main organizations—the Associated Boards of Trade, the Merchants' Association and the Chamber of Commerce. The Merchants' Association,

for instance, was in reality fifteen directors who met once a month and decided things. Except to shake hands and smoke on New Year's Day, the general membership practically never met. A merchant who was a member told me how he had sought action repeatedly from the body on unremedied abuses in the local express service. His protests were referred to a committee and, finally, the chairman of the committee called upon him. The chairman was the manager of one of the express companies. This does not mean that there were not able and public-spirited men in these organizations. Quite the contrary; they are some of the foremost leaders of the re-organized bodies. But their machinery was old and the scope of their public work nar-

new into committees dealing with such subjects as reductions in fuel costs for Boston manufacturers, the city charter, schools, and industrial conciliation. The executive officer is a man with a \$15,000 salary; the transportation committee has an expert of national standing as secretary; a tour of Maine, not for sales purposes, but to strengthen the "sense of New England," was carried out by a train-load of Boston business men last month. A guarantors' fund of \$100,000 has been raised and has made possible the final amalgamation this month of the association and the Chamber of Commerce, under the latter name. Along with its commercial functions, there is promise of a decided human squint to the work of the chamber. One of its constituent committees will probably be on city planning, to consider, with the help of experts, the structural lay-out and future development of the urban area.

If the City Club rubs men's noses together, and the Chamber of Commerce pools what is common to the larger business interests of the city, something else is found to be needed to crystallize local sentiment in different sections of Boston. A year ago, five or six district improvement associations were taking active, permanent interest in questions of parks, playgrounds, schools, sewers and other public improvements. There was room within the city boundaries for fully thirty such organizations and a group of men engaged an exploring secretary for a year to see the lay of the land. He was a



RICHARD C. CABOT, M. D.

Originator social service work of Massachusetts General Hospital.

rowed and obstructed by private interests.

The story of the work of re-organization of trade bodies during the past three years is too long to go into here. First, the Associated Boards of Trade and the Merchants' Association were merged, and the new organization was put on a basis of democratic responsibility. Final power is vested in the full membership at monthly meetings, which must be held nine months in the year. A committee member who fails to turn up at three successive meetings of his committee is automatically dropped. The energies, which, in the old body, went into anti-parcels-post resolutions, anti-trade union resolutions and the like, go in the



DR. A. Z. CONRAD.

Minister Park Street Church and organizer of the Chapman Revival.



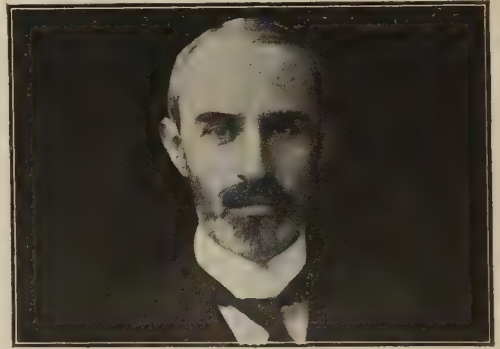
FRANK A. DAY.

Banker, president Colonial Securities Company and director of one of the big mills.

newspaper man and went at it with the same thoroughness as a lawyer investigating a case, or a physician, or a social worker. Wherever a moribund organization was found—and there were a dozen or more of them lying around loose—he tried to rekindle it, rather than leave it to distract from the new movement. Take the story of the Charlestown Improvement Association, which held no meetings, collected no dues, and did nothing. The active men in the district were seen. One man would answer that the trouble was political, others that the association had nothing to do; it was some weeks before the real reason cropped out;—ninety per cent of the people living in the district are Catholics and the organization was looked upon as Protestant. The second step was to get a nucleus of men together which would be thoroughly representative. After inquiries in many quarters, the number simmered down to six men—a grocer, a real estate man, a restaurant keeper, an undertaker, the clerk of the district court, the superintendent of the Sailors' Haven. They were asked to meet together, but only one showed up—the grocer in whose store the meeting was held. Ten days later, another meeting was held; two were there; a third meeting, four; a fourth meeting, the whole six, and agreement was reached to get the old president of the old organization to call a general meeting. It was surprising the number of civic needs Charlestown found it had, at that meet-

ing. For instance, it developed that three years ago the city had appropriated \$30,000 for a branch public library there, and the money had lain in the treasury since. A committee was appointed to take up the matter. The elevated company has recently opened a tunnel, but the meeting brought out that the people of Charlestown had to change cars three times to get to Park street in the center of the city. The association has secured through cars.

Back in 1905, when the eighty cent gas fight was on, various district bodies formed the United Improvement Association. The federation lapsed, coming together again in 1906 in the five cent telephone campaign, and again in 1907 when it nominated a member of the Finance Commission. On the basis of



JOHN H. FAHEY.

Publisher *Boston Traveler*.

this old organization, a conference of district improvement associations was called in January, and within the past few weeks a permanent delegate body has been instituted by fourteen of them. The federation will lend greater weight to such local demands as it endorses, and it may bring some foresight into the customary log-rolling before councils.

Given a common fraternizing place and associations representing business and district interests more effectively than ever before, what was to be the objective? Boston is organizing; what shall it do? Here it is that "Boston—1915" comes in, standing on the one hand for a wider community organization than any of these—embracing all of them loosely, together with the churches, the school teachers, the

professions, the labor unions, the citizens of the whole town; and, on the other hand, standing for a plan of improvement for the whole town, such as can be built up like a mosaic, from the programs put forward by those various special organizations which are advancing the causes of health, of education, of recreation, of philanthropy, of civic and industrial efficiency and well-being.

The 1915 movement was launched at a dinner of one hundred and fifty men at the Boston City Club, March 30. The call was issued by Edward A. Filene, James L. Richards, James J. Storrow, Louis D. Brandeis, George S. Smith and Bernard J. Rothwell; and the platform of the movement was put forward in the sixteen preliminary planks making up the



ARTHUR M. HUDDALL.

Vice-president International Union of Steam Engineers and a member of the state commission investigating old age pensions, insurance and annuities.

"plan for a Boston plan," which is published on page 396. The next morning permanent headquarters were opened at 6 Beacon street, and publicity and office secretaries engaged. The chairman of the organizing directors, Mr. Filene, has at the start put in his entire time on the work, and his fellow members have been on call. They seem to mean business.

The first two months have been taken up in organizing a representative directorate and two or three sub-committees, in putting the project in its broader aspects before various meetings and associations, and in getting them to formulate suggestions and explore their own

relations to the scheme as a whole. To tell of the movement at this stage is to tell only of initial processes. The plan of organization adopted is the same as that of the Boston Merchants Association. As each phase of the work comes up, a committee is to be appointed by the directors to deal with it. These committees will not overlap those of existing organizations. For instance, if the Chamber of Commerce appoints a committee on city plan, the Boston—1915 directors will not do so. On the other hand, both the chamber and Boston—1915 have committees on transportation. The chamber's committee is a fighting organization representing shippers who want low freight rates, and merchants who want low carfares for customers; while the 1915 committee (I am not sure that it has a duplicate in this country) is made up not only of representatives of these interests, but of high officers of the Boston and Maine, the New York, New Haven and Hartford, the New York Central and the local traction lines. If this balanced committee cannot work out a traction plank for 1915 which all interests will jointly stand for, the companies will have to fight it out in the open with the chamber and the Franchise League; until then the 1915 movement affords a common meeting ground such as has not hitherto existed.

Every man considered for a committee has three tests applied to him. These tests are:



REV. THOMAS I. GASSON, S. J.

President Boston College.



JAMES P. MONROE.
President Twentieth Century Club.

1. Is the man efficient¹ in his vocation?
2. Has he shown public spirit?
3. Can he work with other men?

The method of applying these tests is original. Inquiries are made and half a dozen judges, who are found to be familiar with the general questions to be taken up by the committee, are selected. In turn, these judges are asked to score the names of men suggested for membership on the committee, and to supplement these names with those of others who might be suitable. The list goes round till the full jury has passed on every name; and the directors have before them as confidential a body of opinion as a Dun or Bradstreet report. The plan affords directors who are not versed in the subject in hand, or in the personality of the men interested in it, a pretty shrewd basis for appointing an effective committee. The committee, once formed, will have assigned to it any work coming within its range. It will send reports to the directors to be passed upon, but it will not itself take action or have publicity for its work until authorized by the directors. Ultimately, a general committee, "properly representative of all the interests of the city," is proposed which shall have supervisory and veto powers over the action of the directors; and ultimately, also, a popular dollar membership is proposed, running up into the hundreds

¹"The test of efficiency is not the importance of his vocation, but that he shall be fairly at the front in it; that is, if a bootblack, that he shall own as many chairs as any other bootblack."

of thousands, and maintaining the general work of the undertaking; but the details of these larger phases of organization are not as yet mapped out.

The crux of the whole scheme will, of course, be its success in getting the community together on its program. I can do no better than to quote the statement formulated by the directors on the relation of Boston—1915 to other organizations:

Boston—1915 conflicts with no organization nor duplicates any work now under way. As each organization formulates its purposes into a concrete design, this design may be proposed for introduction into the stated Boston—1915 plan. If, for any reason, it is not included, the organization which submits it will be just where it was before it offered the suggestion—free to pursue its



JOSEPH C. PELLETIER.
Attorney, member Massachusetts Civil Service Commission, national advocate of the Knights of Columbus.

own proposition in its own way. But if a plan made by any organization is gathered up by Boston—1915 into its plan-at-large, it will take rank with every other item on the common program, to be presented with all the others, and come in for the united backing of an enlightened public opinion. It is understood that any plan thus adopted shall continue its identity as before. The only change will be that the adoption will put behind it the strength of the whole city as well as that of its own organization.

A few days at headquarters, watching the organizing process go forward, is enough to show the dynamic character of certain factors in the 1915 scheme. One is the compelling power of the mere conception of the city's needs as a whole. It brings recruits and resources from unan-

ticipated quarters. Saturday, a fruit exchange passes resolutions of endorsement; Sunday supplements show plans of what could be done in making a downtown square a civic landmark. The hundreds of people who pledged themselves at the great Boston religious revival last fall, see in the movement the possibilities of concrete things to do, for which they have been waiting; by the time of the fall elections, there will be a civic platform, with which the candidates of all parties will have to reckon.

Another element which stands out is the driving power of a date ahead. Organizations which have been puttering along with ill-defined plans, are confronted with the necessity of formulating them, and letting the public know just



JAMES L. RICHARDS.

President Boston Consolidated Gas Company.

what it is that they stand for. "If we haven't virility to think this thing through, let's disband and ask 1915 to take it in hand," said a member at a meeting I attended.

The idea of an exposition in which the exhibits will be things as they are in 1915 turns pride into a becoming civic force. The clerks of a large department store are all anxious for a new store-building; the directors of an obscure orphan asylum who, against all advice, are about to put up a congregate institution, are faced with a new argument. Their orphanage will not be on the exhibition tours. The idea of "good form",—of what 1915 will stand for,—in workingmen's houses is likely to have an influence in suburban

development during the next five years. Architects' prizes, builders' prizes, 1915 plans and house plates, co-operative companies which will set standards, are some of the suggestions talked over.

At every point, as already indicated, the appeal is to the imagination; the senses are a large factor in 1915 plans. "Watch Tacoma Grow," read a great electric sign in the lawn of one of the Pacific Coast expositions; and there is a cheerful acceptance of boom-town methods by the 1915 directors. But with it all, they are linking what they call "gum shoe ideas." Touring car trips to the mills and factories of Metropolitan Boston are a frank adoption of Mr. Heinz's equally frank advertising tactics at his 57-factory in Pittsburgh. People like to see the wheels go and the 1915 exposition is going to get more business for Boston. At the same time the scheme may prove to be a pretty fair test of the influence of publicity and emulation in bringing all Boston establishments up to the standards of hours, ventilation, and conveniences set by the best.

Finally, the 1915 movement is reaching out into new levels of business life and democracy for its backing. Take a meeting at the City Club leading up to the formation of its housing committee. There were architects and members of philanthropic organizations, and of former housing commissions; but there were rows of small immigrant builders who had been drummed up by an active canvass. They have a stake in 1915. A



BERNARD J. ROTHWELL.

President Boston Chamber of Commerce.



GEORGE S. SMITH.

Second vice-president National Clothiers' Association.

truckman who gets a playground for his kids through 1915, may not understand the full program, but there is a pretty good chance he will whoop for it.

In the leaders of the district improvement associations and of the 1915 committees, the process of organizing Boston is bringing into creative public work men whose abilities in those fields would otherwise have been lost to the community. Take the case of three or four men, whose experience throws important side-lights on the character of work to be anticipated in the 1915 movement. The organizer of the group is Edward A. Filene, who stands for the proposition that an ounce of public spirit in each of a thousand men can be made more useful than a pound in each of ten men. He is of course best known as an organizer on a co-operative basis of one of the largest department stores in this country, which to a remarkable degree has aligned the good feeling and ambition of eight hundred employees with the success of the concern as a whole. He has carried the same working conceptions into his civic work. The creation of the City Club is very generally credited to him and he had a large part in instigating the Public Franchise League. Starting at a time when there was practically no public interest and great private opposition, this league helped secure a proper bargain for the Tremont subway (which might have gone as a ninety-nine year franchise), secured the construction of

the Washington street subway as a city enterprise, and squeezed the water out of the proposed gas consolidation, bringing down its capitalization from twenty-six to fifteen millions and giving Boston eighty cent gas.

It was this fight which brought Filene and Louis D. Brandeis, another of the 1915 directors, together in public work. Brandeis, who is senior partner of the firm of Brandeis, Dunbar and Nutter, served the Franchise League as attorney. When the campaign was ended they discovered that he had served them without pay. A corporation lawyer of large commissions, it was he who, as a private citizen, fought the big railroad merger of all New England lines, and again, in the teeth of opposition from



JAMES J. STORROW.

Banker, president Boston Merchants' Association and for several years chairman Boston School Committee.

the industrial insurance companies, originated the state savings bank insurance plan, which is being tried out in Massachusetts. But it is in his capacity as counsel for some of the largest employers of labor that Mr. Brandeis has exerted a remarkable influence as a builder of economic relations. For instance, a manufacturer who is considered one of the most progressive in the district along trade lines, was in constant trouble with his employees. Mr. Brandeis had a work record made out for each man on the payroll. The industry was a seasonal one, and an analysis of the data was startling. In the case of the great mass of the workers, it

showed repeated periods of idleness followed by periods of exhausting overwork. The lawyer's contention was that every man in the works, so long as he was kept on the payroll, was entitled to a full year's employment and a full year's income, and that the technical men in the industry ought to be held responsible for developing a scheme which would effect this automatically. The manufacturer was convinced and a re-adjustment of seasonal processes was actually carried out. He has since operated an all-the-year-round plant and there have been no strikes.

At the time of the gas fight, Filene and Brandeis and the other Franchise League men were thrown with another 1915 director in the camp of the companies.



JUDGE M. H. SULLIVAN.

Assistant justice district court, Roxbury, president United Improvement Association.

This was James L. Richards, president of the Massachusetts Gas Company, and of the Boston and Suburban Street Railway Company. Since then he has been able to change the public's attitude toward the gas company from one of bitterness, due to the exploitation of the field by Addicks and his associates, to one of genuineness. He stands for the new regime in public service corporations—the business doctrine that the majority of the people will give a company what is fair if they understand a proposition and the proposition is fair. For instance, one of his subordinate lines was not paying expenses; and public opinion has backed the company up in raising the tariff from five cents to six—a situation which probably has no duplicate in this

country. But it wasn't done over night. An appraisal of the property of the line was secured from a firm of large standing which does similar work for the state; and an itemized statement of receipts and disbursements, covering the full term of its existence, was secured from a public accountant of equal standing. Both bore out the company's contention; and the reports were sent to residents along the line, several months before the change was to go into effect, so as to afford opportunity for conference and discussion. The time came and no complaint has been lodged with the state authorities.

The spokesman of the 1915 movement who has interpreted it in its relation to public health is Dr. Richard C. Cabot. There is an interesting analogy between the work Mr. Brandeis has done in connection with certain industrial establishments and that of Dr. Cabot in developing the social work of Massachusetts General Hospital. Just as the attorney has convinced certain employers that they are dealing not with items on a payroll, but with men, so this physician with a social viewpoint has shown that medicines and plasters and amputations are but a small part of the real business of a hospital. If a hospital would make sick people well, it must deal with them after they leave its beds and help them by counsel and better knowledge of the city's resources, to overcome the worries, bad housing, poor nutrition, wrong habits that have brought them there and will bring them there again.

To attempt to size up where Boston



ROBERT A. WOODS.

Headworker South End House, a member of various state and civic commissions.

starts in 1909 to reach the goal set in 1915 is beyond the limits of this paper. It would be easy to tell of the three sea-emptying trunk-sewers of the metropolitan district, of a water system which ranks high for purity and cleanliness, and of an outlying park and boulevard system, such as is unmatched in this country. They show that the 1915 movement begins at a point of conquest of material environment which cities like Pittsburgh must struggle for. Yet an analysis of health statistics, of crime, of wages, of housing, of the municipal budget and of household costs of living, would show that a great measure of the common problems of American municipal life remain unsolved here as elsewhere; what Boston does or fails to do will have national significance.

In one matter, Boston stands in an especially favorable position for such a movement—in the sources of its self-knowledge. The statistical work carried on under Dr. Hartwell has probably no duplicate in this country, and Boston, in common with all Massachusetts, has profited by the close census studies undertaken by such state commissions as those on the blind and industrial education. The South End House studies, edited by Robert A. Woods, also a member of the 1915 directorate, interpret the needs and life of Boston's residential areas in a series of inclusive volumes which have no duplicates in any other American city. The City Wilderness described the old down-at-heel residence streets of the South End, which have become the homes of working people; and its companion volume, *The Lodging-House Problem*, by Professor Wolfe, covered an adjoining district where the single men and women of mercantile Boston have their lodgings. Americans in Process took up the tenement life of the immigrants in the North and East Ends. During the past two years, a belt of encircling districts has been studied—Charlestown, East Boston, South Boston, the mud flats of Roxbury, the working class regions of Cambridge, and so on—areas about equidistant from the State House, areas with more open space than the thickly settled districts already stud-

ied, and inhabited for the most part by the second generation from the point of view of assimilation, and by people who are above the grade of unskilled labor from the point of view of economic status. Within the last year, the Boston Social Union, representing sixteen settlements or centers of neighborhood work, has been organized. Mr. Woods is chairman of the union, and his singularly broad experience in social work, should bring elements of breadth and insight into the 1915 movement.

In the field of city administration, the Boston Finance Commission, which went out of existence in February after one of the most exacting pieces of work ever performed by an unpaid board, has put in the hands of Boston people a working body of facts of unusual intimacy and importance. The commission had large powers of subpoenaing witnesses and employing engineers and expert accountants. The first series of its reports has been printed and bound; a second volume is forthcoming, with technical reports to follow.

A new movement cannot be thrust into the communal life of a big city which is highly developed and differentiated, without provoking reactions in many quarters. It would be interesting to develop in detail the bearings of the 1915 movement upon the existing order in Boston—economic, political, philanthropic. They can be no more than suggested here. Sidney Smith would have been put to it to improve upon some of the quips which pass current on "Filene's" and the "1915 Filenium." *The Bean Pot* writes engagingly of the spirited business men who are about to put salt on the tail of perfection, yet the newspapers for the most part have been quick in their endorsement of the plan.¹ Criticisms have come from strange bed-fellows, from *The Bostonian*, *The Republic*, and *Practical Politics*, all weekly or monthly papers with a small circulation about the City Hall, which are regarded as the organs of a discredited political ring; and from the *Evening Transcript*, Boston's tea-table

¹The *Herald* has been booming a 1920 exposition to commemorate the landing of the Pilgrims.

paper, reflecting the conservatism of what Dr. Holmes calls the Brahmin class of New England. To them old time Boston is pre-eminently its historic self. Making up, as they do, a community of investors, who draw their income from other parts of the country as well as Boston, the civic goods which they cherish most are the quiet, good taste, and cultural opportunities of the place, unharrassed by high taxation. All this many of them have secured in the broad lawns and hedgerows of such towns as Brookline, Milton, Cohasset and Nahant, lying in part of the urban area, but independent in taxation and government. Residents of these towns get metropolitan advantages without paying their share of the cost of a big city. Not so with their downtown holdings, nor with those who have clung to the residential district of the Back Bay. The very detachment and seclusion of these suburbanites made it easier for aggressive Irish leaders to become the political masters of the city proper. Corruption followed, not, to be sure, on such a brazen, ample scale as in some other cities and free of the taint of a police system in cahoots with vice; but nevertheless ranging from the hiring of "tea warmers," an illusory sort of municipal employe, to collusion between competing contractors and city boards, and the purchase of water pipe at 150 per cent in excess of cost, flag-stones at 100 per cent, and the like. More serious than these, the Finance Commission brought out that the city debt was growing seven and a half times as rapidly as the population and four and a half times as rapidly as the valuation of property in the city.

The Finance Commission and its work was hailed by old Boston as the way out. It is an expression of what is most vigorous and accurate in their approach to the civic problem. Its thorough-going revelations led to the overthrow of Fitzgerald and his corrupt regime, a movement in which the broader and more progressive democratic leaders took a hand; and its recommendations for a new Boston charter have been the fiery issue before the present legislature. These recommendations provided for the

removal of party designations from the ballot, for nominations by petition, for a mayor and council of nine men selected at large, for expert standards for heads of municipal departments, and for a permanent finance commission, appointed by the governor, to investigate city departments, hold hearings and report from time to time. Thus, it will be seen that unusual publicity for all city matters would be ensured, whatever the whim of a city administration; but it will also be seen that the commission placed less reliance upon budget-making and municipal accounting—such as are advocated by the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York as instruments for preserving both democracy and efficiency—than upon a remolding of the municipal authority into one of forced, centralized responsibility.

Men identified with the 1915 movement have approached the city situation from a different angle. They have had a hand in practical politics down town. Mr. Storrow, as a vigorous mixer in municipal affairs, is quite openly spoken of as the man who is bound to be picked to win the fight against Fitzgerald. He is a member of the old banking house of Lee, Higginson & Company, and performed a notable public service, as chairman of the Boston School Committee in the years of its reorganization. Such an outcome is quite in keeping with the spirit of the 1915 movement. They are getting a hearing in quarters where a silk-stocking or good citizenship coterie would encounter deaf ears. There is an air of up-and-going-after-something about them that is politically understandable. To those who think that the charter represents the prime first step in civic reform in Boston, the institution of the 1915 movement, while the campaign of the Charter Committee of One Hundred hung in the balance, was like dragging a herring across the trail of good government. Some of the 1915 men have given less energy to eulogizing the administrative reforms proposed in the charter, than they have to insisting that it should be put before the voters of Boston city on referendum. The dominant men in the Merchants' Association and the Chamber of Commerce

came out for such a referendum at a critical time. They held that Fitzgerald otherwise would be furnished with a besom with which he could sweep Boston, none other than the old cry that the voters of the city were being cheated of their rights by the republicans at the state house. He would be mayor again, with nine of his henchmen in councils for four years; and with Storrow and Rothwell, and even those of the machine democrats who stand for better things, powerless to down him.

There was more than campaign tactics in this move, however, or even the old choice between good men and good machinery of government. There was the conviction on the part of some of the men in the 1915 movement that the good of the city is to be purchased for no less a price than to go out into the hurly burly of democracy and win it. Thus one of them sees in the charter referendum the chance of a generation to educate the voters on the concrete issues of misgovernment. A second holds that the strongest assurance of right choices election day will be when all Boston is kindled with the vision of civic betterment, when the future of the city is brought home to the whole electorate in terms plain people know. And a third said, "If I could turn on good government in Boston by turning a screw, I would not do it. That isn't the way ahead."

A middle course is taken by those who support the democratic, civic propaganda of the 1915 movement, and at the same time endorse the administrative reforms of the charter proposals. They feel that the commission made a blunder in disregarding the referendum, and that 1915 men made a mistake in not more vigorously supporting the charter. Their point is that the dice are hopelessly loaded against democracy and home rule because Boston has an artificial (and, by the same token, undemocratic) boundary line, which shuts out the bulk of that element which they hold makes a complete democracy a feasible experiment—the middle class. When Boston's amputated democracy is helped to reasonable self-respect and efficiency, they feel that they will be in position to bring the two sections of Boston's social organization to-

gether, and take the full measure of democratic risk.

Beyond all this there is an underlying economic situation involved. Boston has a large investing business and a large educational business. These Back Bay and suburban vocations are independent of the development of the city as a commercial center. Not so with her other interests. As a port her shipping is not growing; comparatively few houses or business blocks are going up; and holders of suburban land get few purchasers. It is in woollens, leather goods and general manufactures, as a market and wholesale center for the cotton-mill and other industrial towns of New England, that her business future lies. Other cities, nearer natural resources, or with half-developed agricultural country behind them, can continue to gamble on raw leads of wealth, and on fresh supplies of crude immigrant labor. Not so, Boston. Her strength lies in the mastery of processes possessed by her manufacturers; and, of increasingly larger significance, in the skill, permanence and good will of her working force. Merchant and manufacturer find common cause in this proposition. The conviction is gaining ground that by reducing costs in handling goods and materials, by perfecting Boston's equipment as a trading center, by civic undertakings that will bring business to the Hub, but more than that, by increasing the output of the mills by increasing the productivity of the operatives, will Boston be assured of her future. And they are looking to the city and to civic agencies as a big factor in meeting the situation. The 1915 movement is at a tangent with the general back-set toward cutting down municipal expenditure at this time. It is out of patience with those who merely shout for economy. It is equally for the elimination of waste and for rooting out graft, but it is strong in the faith that the way for a city to get over its poverty is not to hug it; but to spend more if that expenditure will mean more productivity, and more income.

So we find a group of business men entering into this 1915 movement with the zest of a group of school boys turned loose in an apple orchard. It is a man's

movement while social reform in Boston has hitherto depended largely on women. Many of the men are technically unfamiliar with the subjects they propose to handle; while it is in philanthropic work that the influence of the Back Bay still dominates as nowhere else and is at its best. For the Associated Charities has a large following and the Civic League, with its cheery orders to water the flowers instead of tying them on, has won many converts from the old almsgiving ways. What will be the attitude of the leaders in these and other fields to the new movement? Will these leaders give it the substance and human insight it needs, or will they stand aside until it has made good? The indications seem to be the former—a realization more and more quickly formulating, that here is a medium for securing quick and far-reaching responses to some of the things they have stood for longest.

Right here of course lies the danger of a business man's movement in practical civics—the danger of pushing ahead on a basis of incomplete information and unassimilated technique. To slap a bridge in here, sink a dock there, rake out a park in a woods beyond, is comparatively simple; but to build with human material is a different craft. What is to be the criterion of whether or not there are enough hospitals in Boston; or whether the courts prevent or make crime; or what drains which an industry makes upon health are too costly for a community to stand?

There are of course two answers. If the Boston board merely secures the things which have been proved by experience in other cities—the recreation centers of Chicago, the clean milk of Rochester, the library system of Pittsburgh, the school-standards of St. Louis, it will excel them all. They are in the position of directors of a railroad, who have had only business experience, but who call on engineers and operating experts for report and recommendation, mix them with common sense, and arrive at far-reaching decisions.

The other answer is that, after all, the 1915 movement is not primarily a body for scientific research. It is executive; instigative; is there to put things in mo-

tion. In a way, if successful in organizing and arousing this community, it is the biggest challenge yet made to properly constituted agencies of research and experimentation; it calls for the sanitary, social and economic facts, which are needed in weaving the texture of better civic and industrial relationships.

It is easy to augur that the movement may flat out or grow stale, that even if it runs its six years' course, Boston will slump worse than ever. Yet it is to be borne well in mind that it is not merely the automobile-toured community of 1915 for which these men are working, but for the city imperishable, for the people with a vision. To reach that vision, they would link with civics, organized democracy; and with life and labor, the genius of American progress. Said one of them:

We have depended too much upon trust funds for our social regeneration—the big gifts of time and money of a few men. Everybody has some vision of better things. Organize it, set it free. Gather together the stocking savings of civic interest and you will have a working capital beyond anything the cities have known.

And another:

We have accomplished wonders of invention in the mechanical arts—we are just on the fringe of invention in social achievement. We see about us not only the economic inequalities but the inanities of our modern life. We have seen misery accumulating in New York, Boston, Pittsburgh and the other cities of America. Yet we have not only resources such as the world has never known but also the wealth which is freedom to work things out. . . . In our communal adjustments, we have not yet realized that the risks and hazards of employment must be met either out of income through higher wages, or out of taxation. The cost of living to-day requires insurance against sickness, old age, accidents and premature death, as surely as it implies expenditures for food. Such insurance is necessary for freedom and independence. . . . On the other hand, we have only begun to get the potential work capacity out of men. No man can shake my belief that with larger living and more leisure, men can produce more. That is the way Boston and New England will hold their own. Work adjustments in differing lines of production are not the same, any more than you can build dynamos with a shoe-button machine. When you get the same sort of capacity and ingenuity that has gone into industrial processes, applied to men, you will get the same result. Our vision of the city is only a symbol; our vision is of men.

A PLAN FOR A BOSTON PLAN

1.—By 1910, to have an expert accounting of the financial condition and resources of the city, present and prospective; and so clearly stated, explained and illustrated that the man in the streets may understand. Moreover, the fact should be made plain that, whether he owns property or not, he contributes to these resources and pays a tax in every purchase he makes and in every comfort he provides for those dependent upon him.

2.—By 1910, to understand clearly the waste and other losses in the public finances and service; to complete all reports thus far made, and to publish the findings fairly and impartially.

3.—By 1915 to have the best public health department that can be planned on the basis of all experience; the best system of sanitation for the prevention of wasteful and unnecessary disease and accidents; the most scientific and efficient treatment of the stricken and physically deficient; the most intelligent protection of child life; the best system of insuring the purity of the food and water supply; in short, the most complete organization possible for guarding the public health. A large part of the skill and force which in the past has been employed in curing disease and repairing accident should be utilized in making effective measures to prevent them.

4.—By 1910 to have made a careful accounting of the human resources of the city, to make it clear that Boston can rank first in the skill and character of its workers and in organizing and executive abilities of its industrial leaders.

5.—By 1910 to secure a broad-minded consideration, by and with its employers and employees, of their relations; happier and better conditions here for both the workers themselves and their wives and children than anywhere else in the world, to the end that by 1915 all Boston shall be busy in peace and prosperity, and leading in the solution of new enterprises.

6.—By 1910 to have under way an organized movement for the extension of existing industries and the introduction of new enterprises.

7.—By 1911 to gather for the people of Boston and for their neighbors accurate information concerning the particular capacities of the cities, towns and country districts of New England, and to assist sympathetically in the development of them; to consult with men having special knowledge as to their agricultural and other natural resources; to learn and to appreciate what is now being done with and for them, and to help to point out and encourage all men and women to see what may be, but is not being done.

8.—By 1915 to have in successful operation a system of public education so planned as actually to fit the boys and girls of Boston for their life work, and to develop not only their minds but their strength, skill and character, and to give them an intelligent interest in life and in their city, in the broadest sense. This system should provide also for adults, through evening and part-time schools and well-planned industrial training. But it should include an organized system of playgrounds, baths, club-houses and social centers for both old and young.

9.—By 1915 to have well along toward completion the execution of an intelligent system of transportation for the city, state and New England as a whole, steam and electric, express, freight and passenger. This plan should be the result of public deliberations between the trans-

portation interests and the public, represented by men who best understand Boston's needs in transportation; advised by experts familiar with the latest improvements at home and abroad; these deliberations to be guided by the assumption that the true interests of the transportation companies and of the public are identical.

10.—By 1912, to draw out of all these plans, and out of the best experience of European cities, one city plan which shall show how Boston will look physically when finished. The city as it is shall be the basis of this plan; and the city as it is growing naturally shall be the guiding lines of the proposed design for the future. But the proposition is to include such features as help to make a city a place of healthy, happy homes—playgrounds and public buildings that are really for the people. And the purpose is to draw a picture of the physical possibilities of Boston, which may not be compulsory, but which will have all the influence that unity, convenience and beauty exercise upon the human mind.

11.—By 1910, to have established a system of small neighborhood and district centers where lectures will be given, illustrated with lantern slides and other pictures and maps; where city officials may meet the people and where the candidates of any party and others who have suggestions to make or help to ask may find the people. And as a part of the plan it is proposed to establish (probably at first by private enterprise):

12.—By 1910, regular courses of lectures in civil government, politics, city planning, play, health and business, together with various entertainments.

13.—To increase the number of regular public library branches and to establish here the system that has succeeded elsewhere, of circulating through shops, factories, schools and clubs. And

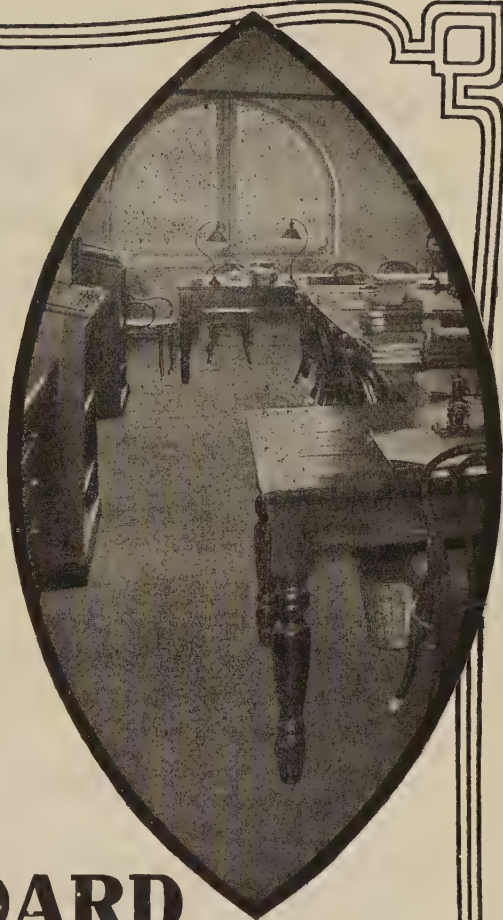
14.—That the Public Library and Art Museum shall circulate pictures and the reproduction of pictures, as is done in France; and as a part of this service, provide lecturers who shall follow the pictures around and point out not only the beauty and aesthetic and historic significance of them, but the skill of the artist in the use of line and color. This should help to develop among our people a love of beauty that will not only find expression in their homes and their daily lives, but increase their taste and capacity for artistic work.

15.—By 1912 to have more music in the parks and in the neighborhood centers. In order, however, that the people shall feel that these centers are their own, they should be equipped with gymnasiums, baths and a society hall or halls where the people may organize their own clubs and provide for their own entertainment.

16.—By 1915, to develop and secure the general adoption of a comprehensive system of wage-earners' insurance and old age pensions which shall afford protection against the risks of sickness, accidents, old age, premature death, to the end that our wage-earners may be in fact as well as in name independent citizens of a free commonwealth; that public and private service may be honorably relieved of those whom age and misfortune have rendered inefficient; and that the heavy burden which the community bears of supporting those who are dependent may be lessened.

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
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
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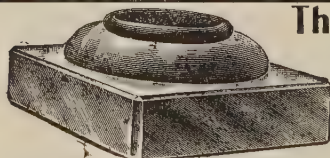
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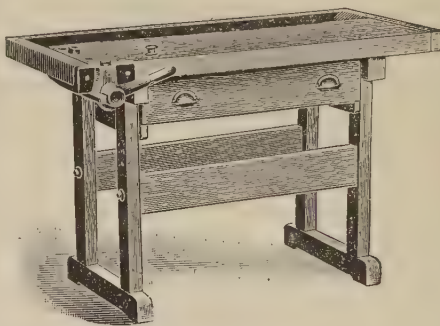
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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

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| III. The Work | - | March 6 |

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THE COMMON WELFARE

WILL PROTECT CHILD MERCHANTS

The City Council of Cincinnati has passed an ordinance regulating the work of children in the street trades, somewhat similar to that which went into effect in Boston last January. In the Ohio valley states the child labor laws do not apply to children who work in the streets and public places—the shrill-voiced, pert, little salesmen of newspapers, magazines, chewing gum, and other penny merchandise. In reality they are small merchants on their own account, as they are not employed by anyone. Some are sent out by their parents to sell goods before and after school hours and until late at night. As a result they are counted among the “retarded” children, dragging behind their companions in school and falling asleep over afternoon lessons.

Proper enforcement will protect these children from such unnatural occupation. By its provisions boys under ten and girls under sixteen are prohibited from engaging in street trades, while boys between ten and sixteen must secure a permit and wear a numbered badge. They must not work before six in the morning or after eight at night except, by an unfortunate provision, on election days and other occasions of great news importance when newspapers may be sold during a longer period. Badges expire each year on January 1. The permit required gives the child's age, the name and address of his parents, a physical description, the name of his school, and a

statement that the person issuing the permit is satisfied that the applicant is not less than ten years old, of normal development for a child of his age, and physically fit to undertake the work he intends to do. Permits may be revoked upon the application of a police, truant or probation officer. Violation of the ordinance constitutes delinquency for which the child may be fined not less than one dollar or more than five dollars for each offense.

DELANEY REAPPOINTED AS FACTORY INSPECTOR

Governor Stuart of Pennsylvania has reappointed Chief Factory Inspector John C. Delaney for a term of four years at a salary of \$5,000. Mr. Delaney's published reports, analyzed in the third issue of the Pittsburgh Survey¹, show him to be incompetent, unfaithful and cruelly neglectful of the working children for whose protection his office exists. If the office of chief factory inspector requires confirmation by the state Senate, the Pennsylvania State Child Labor Association might usefully begin at once an active campaign to prevent such action two years hence. Having accomplished the difficult task of obtaining the enactment of a good child labor bill, the association is in a favorable position for driving the unfaithful servant from the post which he has too long betrayed. Child labor in Pennsylvania is a concern of the whole

¹ *Charities and The Commons*, March 6, 1909. Price 25 cents.

nation. There are more working children in Pennsylvania than in any other state. However faithful the local school authorities may be, an honest, able, faithful chief inspector of factories is absolutely necessary.

BOSTON'S FINANCE COMMISSION REPORT

After many months of work by the Boston Finance Commission, the Massachusetts Legislature, the Committee of One Hundred and many civic bodies and individual citizens, it looks as if the city will get a new charter, in part direct from the Legislature and in part on a referendum. The measure was recently reported to the Legislature by the committee on metropolitan affairs. It has already passed the critical point in both branches and will probably be law before this report is printed. Numerous amendments were presented by House members and a few by Senate members, but none of them received serious consideration. Not many people agree with the proposed charter in all its features, but there

is general belief that the only way to make progress is to support the committee report and look to future amendments in case anything radically wrong is discovered. The people have given generously of their time in making this desire manifest and there is evidence that the Legislature agrees in the main with this method of procedure. The out-and-out politicians have offered most of the amendments and they even tried to hold the measure up by attempting to secure an order to refer it to the Supreme Court for an opinion as to its constitutionality.

The portion of the law to be enacted directly by the Legislature provides for:

A permanent finance commission, to be appointed by the governor. The chairman is to receive \$5,000 a year and the other four members are to serve without compensation. They are to investigate all matters relating to appropriations, loans, expenditures, accounts and administration.

The certification of heads of departments by the state civil service commissioners. They are to veto or approve appointments after careful investigation. This is aimed to secure experts instead of politicians as department heads.

It creates a publication to be known as the *City Record*, in which all bids for public work, materials and bonds are to be exclusively advertised. All calls for bids must also be advertised exclusively in the *City Record*.

It extends the terms of present officials to the first Monday in February, 1910.

The common council, city messenger's office, clerk of common council, clerk of committees, assistant clerk of committees and places held by all their subordinates are then to be abolished.

All appropriations must originate with the mayor, except those for school purposes. He must submit an annual budget. The city council has the power to reject or reduce any item in the budget, but it cannot increase any. The mayor's veto on any matter carrying an appropriation is absolute.

The municipal election is changed to the first Tuesday after the first Monday

THE TRUE LINE



WILLIAMS IN THE BOSTON HERALD.

in January, beginning next year. No appointments by the mayor are to be subject to confirmation by the City Council.

The section referring a portion of the charter to the people is as follows:

At the state election on November second, nineteen hundred and nine, the then registered male voters of the city of Boston shall be entitled to vote upon the following plans, which shall be printed upon the official ballot in the following form. The voter shall make a cross in the space at the right of the plan which he desires to have adopted. No ballot shall be counted upon which the voter has made a cross in both spaces.

Plan 1. The term of mayor to be two years; the City Council to consist of one member from each ward (except wards twenty and twenty-four, which shall have two each) nominated in primaries and elected for two-year terms, and nine members elected at large for three-year terms; nominations for school committee, mayor, and councilmen-at-large to be made by independent nominations and by delegates elected by the voters in the primaries.

Plan 2. The term of mayor to be four years, subject to recall after two years by not less than a majority of all the voters in the city; the City Council to consist of nine members elected at large for three-year terms; all nominations for a municipal election to be made by petition of not less than five thousand voters, without party designations on the ballot.

The idea of forcing the voters to take all of one plan or all of the other has met with considerable opposition on all sides. The committee, however, felt that on such a complicated matter a divided referendum would lead only to confusion. It has set off the present system against a new system adapted from the recommendations of the finance commission, with one notable exception in that it ignores entirely the present system of direct primaries and substitutes the convention system in plan No. 1.

The Committee of One Hundred and the Massachusetts Civic League, which have been active throughout, are already laying foundations for supporting plan No. 2. Generous support is being given by a part of the papers and the local improvement associations and similar bodies are planning to post themselves on the comparative values of the two schemes.

A great advance will be made regardless of the portion referred to the people. There is general satisfaction on this

point. An active campaign on the referred matters is anticipated. There is a general opinion that the citizenship of Boston is characterized by indifference and it is believed that any thing that will arouse the people will in the end be helpful.

REPORT ON THE MIDWIVES OF BALTIMORE

A committee of prominent Baltimore men and women has been appointed as a result of a recent meeting in that city to secure legislation to govern the work of midwives. The Evening Dispensary for Working Women and Girls and the Mothers' Relief Society have investigated the situation. Miss Alice H. Small, the investigator, has found that there are 150 midwives in Baltimore, 99 having no diplomas, 37 or 14.6 per cent being able neither to read nor write, 46 using no antiseptics on hands or instruments, 3 using a weak solution of nitrate of silver in the eyes of the new-born. The higher percentage of illiteracy among the midwives of Baltimore as compared with New York and Chicago is due to the fact that 30 of the 45 Negro midwives in the former city can neither read nor write.

The investigation which will shortly be published in full, was presented by Dr. Sherwood to the Medico-Chirurgical Faculty at its meeting in May, and an effort will be made by the committees on legislation and on midwives to secure the passage of a law providing for qualifications for registration, accurate registration and licensing, supervision, and limitation of practice to normal cases of childbirth.

CITY PLANNING IN THE SENATE

The City Planning Exhibit and Conference at Washington led to an interesting hearing last week before the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia whose chairman, Senator Gallinger, requested Benjamin C. Marsh, executive secretary of the Committee on Congestion of Population in New York, to make

suggestions regarding Washington. Eight members of the Senate committee were present and the members of the corresponding House committee were invited. Dr. George M. Kober of the President's Homes Commission, Walter S. Ufford of the Associated Charities, and Allen D. Albert, Jr., of the *Washington Times*, also attended. Mr. Albert urged that building restrictions be imposed on certain sections of the city and the district. The committee requested Mr. Albert to give them definite recommendations for a bill to restrict certain sections of the district.

Mr. Marsh spoke for an hour on city planning and taxation systems, basing his specific recommendations for Washington on the recent reports of the President's Homes Commission on a study of many reports recently issued in Washington and his investigations abroad. That report held \$700 a minimum income at a reasonable standard of living for an average family, but showed that nearly 1,500 married employes of the federal and district governments earn less than \$600 a year. Mr. Marsh urged that certain areas in the district be set aside for small houses within the means of men earning not more than \$720 a year, that the size of blocks be made more uniform and the conversion of alleys into minor streets be continued, but that the present policy of converting stables and other alley buildings into houses be prohibited.

He called attention to the enormous increase in land values in different sections of the city and the inequality of assessment and taxation, suggesting in this connection that increases in land value be required to pay their fair share of the expenses of government. He would enact a law requiring that the actual prices paid for land be recorded and providing for a study of the methods of assessment. Speculation in land is ruthless, and Mr. Marsh pointed out that seven families, estates or companies own seven per cent of the total area of the District of Columbia, excluding streets and public grounds. There is an actual famine of houses, particularly for the man earning

low wages. This must be met by raising wages or by providing houses on a non-commercial basis either by private charity or by the government. The latter methods, Mr. Marsh believes, will prove inadequate and in the long run will lead to further land speculation.

In view of the present methods of selling land to the city, he recommended the passage of an excess condemnation bill. He would secure a few much needed sites for parks and playgrounds, but aside from that would postpone the extensive land purchases recommended by the Parks Commission for parks and boulevards until a revision has been made of the system of taxation, assessment and purchase of land. To accomplish this revision he suggested a joint commission of the Senate and House Committees on the district to make an investigation along the following lines: The methods of assessing property, especially land in the district; the net returns upon land and various improvements in the district, taxation and acquisition of land; the results upon wages of governmental action in erecting houses for workingmen at a non-commercial profit.

The Senate committee requested Mr. Marsh to give them further statistics and information in detail.

THE CASE OF THE WIDOWED MOTHERS

Recognizing that the treatment of widowed mothers, formed a weak spot in the organized care of Jewish dependents in New York, the endeavor to better conditions threatened for a time to interrupt peaceful relations among the directors of the United Hebrew Charities and to create sharp comment among other institutions. It was announced that a new organization would be formed at whose head would be Mrs. William Einstein, who resigned as vice-president of the United Hebrew Charities in order to devote herself to the Widowed Mothers' Fund Committee.

The value of the Council of Jewish

Communal Institutions became apparent in settling the controversies which arose from the protest of the United Hebrew Charities against duplication of any of its work for widowed mothers, or such complications as would arise if even a portion of this work were done by another organization. The Council of Communal Institutions called a special meeting to consider all the facts in the case and an agreement satisfactory to all was finally reached.

By this agreement the Widowed Mothers' Fund Committee may collect funds to enable widowed mothers to keep their children in their own homes instead of sending them to an institution. These funds are to be turned over to the United Hebrew Charities and disbursed by a joint committee of eight, four each from the Widowed Mothers' Fund Committee and the United Hebrew Charities, to meet twice weekly. To this joint committee all cases of widows and deserted mothers are to be referred, including those assisted from the general funds of the Charities. The representatives of the United Hebrew Charities will be Morris Meyer, Daniel Richter, Louis Silverstein and Louis Stern; of the Widowed Mothers' Fund Mrs. Martin Beckhardt, Mrs. Frederick Nathan, Mrs. Maurice Fishberg and Mrs. Meyer Frankel.

As a means of straightening out administrative difficulties, the Council of Communal Institutions seems in spite of itself to be demonstrating the value of federation. Beside the matter of the Widowed Mothers' Fund Committee it has just assisted in converting the Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf Mutes at Lexington avenue and sixty-seventh street into a Jewish institution. An indebtedness of \$30,000 was cleared, its board of directors reorganized, and the Horeb School for Jewish Deaf Mutes amalgamated with it, thus forming the only Jewish institution of the kind.

END OF AN INDUSTRIAL BRIGAND

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Is "history repeating itself" in the case of the city of Chicago against Martin B. Madden?

A few years ago it was John C. Driscoll and Cornelius P. Shea who held industrial Chicago by the throat. Employers and contractors, large and small, as well as union and non-union workmen, let that combination use and abuse them until it grew bold enough to terrorize the town. For years no one had the courage to make a stand against that arch conspirator and his successive co-conspirators at the head of the Teamsters' Union. Employers yielded to their outrageous demand. Entire labor unions let their treasuries pay tribute and their members be beaten up. Then came the teamsters' strike, which stopped the traffic of the city and denied its citizens the free and peaceful use of the streets. Cornelius P. Shea was indeed arrested for this high-handed procedure, and held by the Grand Jury for trial. But Driscoll, the employer's agent, or "labor commissioner" as he preferred to call himself, was not even indicted. The state's attorney publicly called for the victims to present charges and evidence. Enough testimony was presented to arraign and try Shea, but he could not be convicted without trying the principal conspirator who had been so long at work, making this final hold-up of the town possible. So the conspiracy went unpunished and Shea was acquitted by the courts. But at their next election the teamsters convicted him of being unworthy to be president of their international union. Not long after this he was sentenced to the Massachusetts House of Correction for non-support and desertion of his family. He is now a prisoner in New York, awaiting the effects of his murderous assault on the Chicago girl whom he betrayed. Thus Cornelius P. Shea disappears in the shame which he has compelled so many honest but timid men to share with him.

Even the short-lived success of this self-seeking wrecker of his own union and betrayer of the labor cause was not lost upon Madden. He had become an under-study of those conspirators, had emulated their example both in office tactics and in the "strong-arm" policy to get power. He had "wrecking crews" of his own. If he could not make the Chicago Federation of Labor follow him, he could at least terrorize their leader. If he could not make them recognize him as a member, he could at least break into their meetings and beat up their members. It was the gang of sluggers prompted, if not led by him, who at the point of revolvers held up the clerks and judges of the federation election a few years ago. It was the same gang that beat into insensibility the only man that dared do his duty at the risk of their vengeance, brave Michael Donnelly, the meat cutters' leader. And they literally "put him out of business," physically and industrially, by "wrecking him." Yet when \$1,000 reward was offered for the conviction of his assailants, not even the labor men who witnessed the assault upon their fellow official, had the courage to appear against them. The inspector of police claimed to have arrested them all, and to have held them as long as he could for identification and to get warrants sworn out against them. But he was compelled to discharge them because no one dared risk the "strong arm" of the sluggers in testifying against them.

So on this bold buccaneer has gone. Why should he not? Driscoll, the employers' "commissioner," never came to trial. The contractors and employers he preyed upon never furnished the evidence which many of them had against him. Why should Madden fear that they would appear against him? Shea of Boston was acquitted in Chicago. Why should Madden of Chicago fear conviction in his own town by a jury of his peers?

Emboldened, yet more cautious than his predecessors, Madden went on his victorious way. He needed only to threaten the "strong-arm" after he had let it fall so effectively upon one after another of his victims. He set up his royal

state, not indeed in a brothel as Shea did when conducting the teamsters' strike, but in first class hotels, saloons, office buildings, and automobiles. To be sure, he was not altogether at ease. He was well aware that he had enemies. He could not feel safe where so many had suffered by him, financially and physically. His hand has long been against everyone, and he could not tell how long it would be before he would have cause to fear the hand of contractors or union men. So he is said never for years to have been on the streets of Chicago without a body-guard of paid retainers.

But at last one man, a prominent trade unionist, proved manly enough to dare unmask this villain. He hunted up Madden's victims. He published their names, and the abuses they suffered. He tried to draw and drive them to secure indictment by the grand jury, and in consequence he was felled on the street in broad daylight. The state's attorney personally conducted the prosecution and employed the whole force of his office to establish the charges and protect the jury. All his personal and official resources were needed to defend the jurors from undue influence and intimidation. Spectacular stage-plays were attempted in the court room to impress the jury with the popularity of Madden, by having many men shake hands with him. Sinister demonstrations were made, even by firing pistol shots under the windows of the jury room. Every legal device and trick of the lawyer's trade was resorted to by the defense. But the evidence given by the victims of Madden's extortion remained unshaken. The jury, which included several union men, was out forty-six hours, before rendering its verdict of "guilty of conspiracy to extort." The penalty fixed by the jurors, at a fine of \$500 for each of the three convicted men, without imprisonment for any, was so suspiciously inadequate, that the state's attorney has held the grand jury in session to investigate rumors of efforts to "fix" the jury.

Nevertheless a very substantial moral victory was won for the law. The convicted conspirators are branded as criminals. Men within or without the unions

will no more follow or fear this fakir, leader of a fake union. It is at least the beginning of the end of his reign of terror. Neither the union men he exploited, nor the employers from whom he extorted money to ransom their business, will be afraid to defy, expose or testify against him. A young union man has already dared tell the writer that twenty-five dollars had been exacted of him by "the czar" for permission to learn the steamfitters' trade. Contractors, led by the representatives of a great railway, have already risked Madden's worst by refusing to recognize or deal with him. By the fearless execution of the law the court has shaken off a vampire from the vitals of organized labor and the industries of Chicago.

Thirteen more indictments have been returned against him. The state's attorney threatens to try them all, if necessary, to imprison this convicted criminal who is still at large.

INTERSTATE COMPE- TITION

IRENE OSGOOD

In every state legislature where labor measures are under consideration one hears in committee room, assembly hall and senate chamber: "This bill, if it became a law would drive our industry out of the state. We could not compete with manufacturers in other states."

The threat is a common one. Is it, or is it not, merely a threat? Do industries move out of one state into another one having a lower standard? Is industry handicapped where labor legislation is advanced? Does a different standard show itself in other ways than by the withdrawal of an industry? Should a practical working program undertake to aid labor legislation in those states already advanced and eager to go on? Or should it concern itself with the more backward states? Is it possible to establish uniform standards within competitive industrial areas? We find European countries forming international treaties and establishing uniform standards of legislation. How can the

United States meet the situation? Such problems are to-day facing men and women interested in our national welfare.

Professor Commons has applied the principle of uniformity to one of our foremost problems:

"Three states, New York, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, have decided during the present legislative sessions, to appoint commissions for the purpose of drafting legislation providing for workingmen's accident insurance. In view of the novelty and uncertain expense of this class of legislation in the United States, the question of uniformity becomes of greater importance than heretofore. At the same time the opportunity for practical co-operation in working out uniform legislation is greater than it has ever been. If these three pioneer states should authorize their commissions to act together in conducting their investigations and drafting their bills, they would start a movement more fundamental for the future of American law-making than anything else that could be suggested."

This need of uniformity has become so vital that the State Labor Bureau officials and state factory inspectors at their annual convention at Rochester June 15-18 will give the subject special attention.

Leading students of American law-making have been asked to give us some practical suggestions. Their replies on this subject deserve thoughtful attention. Prof. Ernst Freund of the University of Chicago, who gives the first paper, which appears in this number of *THE SURVEY*, will be recognized as the author of the well-known treatise, *The Police Power*. In later issues Charles McCarthy, the creator of the Legislative Reference Department, will give the results of his experience in labor legislation. Louis Brandeis will sum up the entire series. The effect of competition between states having different standards of labor legislation, will be discussed by Mrs. Florence Kelley. Another paper will be given by Prof. Henry W. Farnam of Yale University, the president of the American Section of the International

Association for Labor Legislation. Professor Farnam has made a prolonged and exhaustive study of social legislation in Europe and America. His researches give him a unique position of authority in this discussion. Expressions of opinion from others on this subject will be welcomed.

SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF AMBULANCE CONTROL

NATHAN BIJUR

The bill amending the Greater New York Charter in relation to the ambulance service, approved May 19 by Governor Hughes, provides for the establishment of a board of control to consist of the police commissioner, the charities commissioner, the president of the board of trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and two citizens to be appointed by the mayor. This board is to have control of the entire ambulance service, with power to district the city and establish emergency stations.

It marks a new departure, in respect of an important public function, and is inspired by a new point of view. Up to the present time, it has been left largely to the initiative of private hospitals to provide means for conveying victims of accident or sudden illness to a hospital. The management of the individual hospital, moved by the highest philanthropic sentiments, has aimed at the greatest efficiency of its ambulance service, with a view of extending the scope and operation of the hospital's activities to the utmost public good. From the point of view of the hospitals, the service, has been prompt, efficient and meritorious. The criticisms directed against it find their justification not in individual shortcomings, but in the absence of centralized direction, to which are due the many defects which every administrative officer knows must necessarily spring from that vital flaw.

But there is an entirely different point of view, *i. e.*, that of one who asks how the best service can be rendered to those inhabitants of the city, as a whole, who happen to become victims of accident.

From that standpoint it becomes a municipal question and the solving of it a public function. To the credit of the hospitals be it said that they recognized the new and broader aspect and joined promptly in admitting the insufficiency of the service due to lack of centralization, co-ordination and comprehensiveness of plan.

Heretofore ambulances have been operated by Bellevue and Allied Hospitals on behalf of the city, and voluntarily by a number of private hospitals. The Police Department has, of its own motion, undertaken to district the city and assign districts to the hospitals. It has accepted all ambulance calls which come to headquarters over the telephone, and transmitted them to the appropriate institution. Most ambulance calls have reached the hospitals in this way. At the same time the department always directs the precinct station house nearest to the point of call to send a patrolman to the spot to make arrests, if necessary, and to give any assistance in his power. The usefulness of the Police Department in these respects has caused the hospitals to look up to it as a sort of guiding hand; but beyond that there is no authority by force of law, no system and no centralized control or direction.

The experienced social worker will readily recognize the importance of the new departure. While it can scarcely be doubted that the new board will avail itself of all existing facilities and that the service rendered by the private hospitals will be gratefully acknowledged and continued, there is every likelihood that it will be increased, enlarged and extended, as necessity and opportunity offer, and that two new elements will be introduced:

First, districts not now served with sufficient promptness and consequent safety to the patient, will be adequately protected by the addition of an ambulance service to some hospital within their confines or by the establishment of emergency stations.

Second, through universal co-operation, necessarily entailed by central control, failure, tardiness and uncertainty of service due to absence, breakdown or pre-

occupation of the apparatus of any hospital, will practically be eliminated. The most ordinary system of immediate and constant report to headquarters will render possible replacement and substitution of apparatus, precisely as is the ordinary practice of every Fire Department.

If my inference be correct that this new viewpoint will result in a great improvement in our ambulance service with comparatively little added expense and trouble, it may perhaps be asked whether similar improvement may not be effected in the service of many private institutions in other fields of philanthropy, by regarding their work in an equivalently new aspect.

Indeed, it requires no stretch of the imagination to see in this development a hint in the direction of a better method of collecting funds for philanthropic purposes, a subject to which public attention has been called recently by the articles of Mr. Rockefeller in *World's Work*, and by William H. Allen's valuable comment thereon in *THE SURVEY* of May 15.

It is noticeable that while in almost every other field of human endeavor, concentration, organization, centralization and co-ordination of functions have been the keynote of progress, the charitable activities of the community have remained largely individualistic and disunited. This is due in large part, no doubt, to the fact that our charitable work has been the outcome of private impulse. It has been recognized as a public function, only in comparatively recent years; and even now, public activity is limited to certain branches of the work, and often merely to parts of those branches. The state, county or city is frequently engaged in conducting movements or institutions which have their precise parallel in organizations managed by private persons, and supported either wholly or in part, by funds drawn from private sources. The result is necessarily a division of effort with a consequent weakening of result and a dispersion of public attention and interest. Indeed the very terminology or nomenclature of philanthropy is so unsettled that the name of an institution often contains little indication of its real purpose. For exam-

ple, institutions for the reformation of juvenile delinquents are known as "protectories", "children's villages", "schools", "republics", "refuges", etc. Orphan asylums appear not only under that name, but as "guardian societies", "sheltering homes", and what not. Settlements are designated by so many different terms that it would be a task merely to collate them.

It needs scarcely the statement to demonstrate that so chaotic a condition of the work and its designation must result in a weakening of public interest and consequent failure to receive the maximum assistance which private impulse may lead the individual to contribute. When a man feels like giving to the poor, the suggestion of the recipient should occur to his mind as promptly as the conception of the intent. The need of prolonged thought leads to hesitation, hesitation to doubt, and doubt generally to inaction.

From the point of view of efficiency, also, we have the parallel to the situation in respect of the ambulance service. To-day the various private institutions are managed by directors whose motives and abilities are of the highest, while the service rendered is generally beyond criticism. But there is a failure to do the greatest possible good with the means at hand, because each institution, to a large extent, is managed from within itself and with an eye largely to its own development and perfection. Private hospitals are not regarded as mere links in the chain of the public care of the sick poor; orphan asylums not as individual co-ordinate features in a general movement for the care of dependent children; nor protectories as only branches either of the correctional or, to take the more advanced view, of the educational system, of the state. Regarded, however, in that aspect, it becomes at once apparent that their co-operation should be of the closest, and the policy to be pursued by them, one to be adopted only after collective deliberation.

Recognizing to the full the great merit of the work of the private institutions in our system of caring for the poor and unfortunate, and deeply appreciative, as I am, of the high motives which inspire

their managers and supporters, I can but believe that their efficiency would be enormously enhanced by closer co-operation and a centralized policy, while the means at their disposal would be greatly increased through united appeal and collection.

TWO RECENT BOOKS ON SOCIALISM

Reviewed by W. B. GUTHRIE

Socialism, Its Growth and Outcome,¹ by William Morris and E. Belfort Bax, two exponents of its theories, covers the history of socialism in its relation to social history. It traces the development of society in ancient, mediæval and modern times. The historical viewpoint is a good one though the reader must always bear in mind that socialistic historians have generally an ulterior purpose. In this case it might be remarked that either closer relationship between socialism and earlier conditions should be pointed out or the line of demarcation be more clearly traced. One finds him elf frequently reading social history divorced from socialism. The little volume presents a brief though comprehensive view of social evolution and merits a reading by those who are interested in that historical school begun by Karl Marx, which no doubt widely influenced economic thought on the one hand and historical writing on the other.

The growth and seriousness of the socialist movement in America may perhaps be measured by the increasing literature appearing on its different phases. At an earlier period though many books on socialism had circulation in Europe, we received but meager accounts of it. Karl Marx corresponded for a time for New York papers and gave the reading public some knowledge of his own and kindred doctrines. Mr. Brisbane, one of America's most brilliant scholars, also sent communications from Europe until the con-

servative papers would no longer receive his articles. He then published an instructive book analyzing the system of Fourier for the American public. It was probably the earliest serious discussion of the subject. Lately several works have appeared from such men as Noyes, Spargo, Hunter, Lewis, and a particularly interesting contribution from the pen of Mr. Hillquit, *Socialism in Theory and Practice*,² the volume here reviewed. It is rather more pretentious than his earlier work which was in the nature of a history of socialism in America. The new book covers subjects ranging from socialism and law-society, ethics and politics to a very superficial survey of early utopian literature. Equal space is devoted to the theory and the practice of socialism. Under the practical discussion there is a survey of reforms in England opening with the reform act of 1802 and continuing down to the present. To the casual reader it may seem a little strange that these reforms are described under the caption Socialism and Reform when the earlier ones were fathered by anybody except socialists, and when those of later date owed their passage by Parliament to the strife between the Liberal and Conservative parties with which socialism had nothing to do. Indeed it is much nearer the truth that the short-hour philosophy of the fifties was suggested by these actual reforms than that the socialists suggested them. The author does, however, call attention to the fact that the labor and socialist movements are distinct, and that in some countries socialism has preceded, in others followed labor movements. It might be pertinent to add that the line of distinction grows more marked. The discussion of the relation of socialism to systems of law, ethics, politics, etc., is very interesting. Of course the reader feels some distrust of a writer who speaks dogmatically upon subjects of such wide range and difficulty. The ideas are, however, refreshing and stimulating and the book will unquestionably find many interested readers.

¹Socialism, Its Growth and Outcome, by William Morris and E. Belfort Bax. Chicago, 1909, Charles Kerr and Company. Pp. 2+4. Price 50 cents. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

²Socialism in Theory and Practice, by Morris Hillquit. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1909. Pp. 361. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON THE NEGRO

W. E. BURGHARDT DU BOIS

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY

There must have been those who looked upon the recent Negro conference in New York with both apprehension and distrust. Many true and tried friends of the Negro were not there and at the same time the call was signed by men whose sanity and devotion to great human ideals was unquestioned. The conference was in fact a visible bursting into action of long gathering thought and brooding. Here is a nation faced with a group of tremendous social problems. What shall be done about them? The answer long forced on the American world has been: Let them alone; do not agitate, do not let loose dangerous forces and passions. So the *laissez-faire*, *laissez-passer* policy has been a growing insistent line of procedure until men who were willing to think and talk and know on nearly every racial question became suddenly dumb on the Negro problem, and foreigners viewed with increasing amazement a people willing to grapple with and study all their ailments save the most fatal.

When the call therefore went out on Lincoln's birthday to summon to council all those who felt that the great moral and social questions affecting the Negro American must be faced fairly and honestly, carefully discussed and a method of solution sought, there were many good men who refused to respond and the burden of their objection was: The situation is grave—even desperate, but don't agitate. They had before them the vision of wild-eyed irresponsible people, black and white, who without realizing the seriousness and delicacy of this racial muddle wanted to talk things right in a few long speeches and resolutions.

They refused to sanction such a movement. Others however said that free speech and sincere agitation have been the path whereby the modern world has ever sought salvation. And while they are no guarantee of successful search they

are certainly worth trying, especially since they cannot in the long run be stopped. You may discredit certain earnest classes of Negroes by calling them radicals consumed by petty jealousy, but this does not wholly answer their arguments nor prove the unrighteousness of their cause.

When therefore some two or three hundred persons of all shades assembled in the United Charities Building, New York, on May 31, there must have been many there who looked into each other's faces with apprehension; who felt they were unleashing great and untrained forces, depths of bitterness and passionate feeling which might defeat the ends of human betterment.

Yet the conference did not look dangerous. The white folk there were well known and earnest people like Florence Kelley, Anna Garlin Spencer, Oswald Garrison Villard, William Hayes Ward, Charles Edward Russell, Lillian D. Wald, John E. Milholland, and Ralph Stephen S. Wise. But the curiosity of spectators was toward the darker and less known portion of the audience. What did they represent and want? How far were they earnest and unselfish men and women and how far did they possess the poise and balance necessary for a great forward movement of practical and efficient betterment? There were here conspicuous absences—Booker T. Washington, for instance; while among those present were J. M. Waldron, Bishop Alexander Walters, Monroe Trotter, J. M. Barber, W. L. Bulkley, Ida Wells Barnett, W. A. Emilau, R. L. Wright, Jr., and L. M. Hershaw—all persons who mean much within the veil, but are less known without.

The conference began with emphasizing the very points around which the real race argument centers to-day, *viz.*, from the standpoint of modern science, are Negroes men? The answers of Pro-

fessor Wilder of Cornell and Professor Farrand of Columbia, stated with all care and caution, left no doubt in the minds of listeners that the whole argument by which Negroes have been pronounced absolutely and inevitably inferior to whites is utterly without scientific basis. "Blood will tell" said Professor Farrand, "but we do not know just what it tells, nor which blood it is, that speaks." Turning from this, the conference took up political and industrial rights and organization. It was argued earnestly that industrial survival was impossible with political disfranchisement—that a body of workingmen could not progress "half-slave and half-free"; and the strike in Georgia was cited to prove this. Ida Wells Barnett who began a brave crusade against lynching ten years ago, spoke of the 3,284 men murdered by mobs in this country in twenty-five years and a former attorney general of Massachusetts insisted on the wisdom and statesmanship of the war amendments.

Both in the conference and before the 1,500 listeners in Cooper Union, the white South was heard by two striking representatives—one, slight, angular and bitter, talking for the "poor white trash" and asserting that the enslavement and disfranchisement of the white workingman was already following the oppression of the black. The other representative, Prof. John Spencer Bassett, a man of culture with the quiet academic air, reminded the South that in its process of development it was submerging the exceptional Negro and retrograding from the ideals of its English ancestry and even of its American practice before the war.

There were many other speeches and talks—the strong straightforward confession of the old South by Judge Stafford of the District of Columbia, the fiery jeremiad of Jenkin Lloyd Jones, the earnestness of Bulkley and Walters and Milholland.

All this the waiting listeners heard with interest and sympathy. These men were earnest, they had heart-breaking grievances and they felt them. The policy of *laissez-faire* was not bringing

moral, social, or even (as had been positively promised) industrial peace. But what was going to be done about it? How far could this conference find a practical path amid intense feeling, divergent views, bitter radicalism, impractical dreaming?

Thus the night session of Tuesday was of great interest and burning earnestness. The scientific calm, the repression and waiting were cast aside. The black mass moved forward and stretched out their own hands to take charge. It was their problem. They must name the condition. Three great thoughts were manifest: Intense hatred of further compromise and quibbling in stating this problem to the public; wavering uncertainty as to just what practical steps were best, and last but not least suspicion of the white hands stretched out in brotherhood to help. The first question was settled by straightforward resolutions:

We denounce the ever growing oppression of our 10,000,000 colored fellow citizens as the greatest menace that threatens the country. Often plundered of their just share of the public funds, robbed of nearly all part in the government, some murdered with impunity and all treated with open contempt by officials; they are held in some states in practical slavery to the white community. The systematic persecution of law abiding citizens and their disfranchisement on account of their race alone is a crime that will ultimately drag down to an infamous end any nation that allows it to be practiced, and it bears most heavily on those poor white farmers and laborers whose economic position is most similar to that of the persecuted race.

To this was added an unequivocal demand:

As first and immediate steps toward remedying these national wrongs, so full of peril for the whites as well as the blacks of all sections, we demand of Congress and the executive:

(1) That the constitution be strictly enforced and the civil rights guaranteed under the fourteenth amendment be secured impartially to all.

(2) That there be equal educational opportunities for all and in all the states, and that public school expenditure be the same for the Negro and white child.

(3) That in accordance with the fifteenth amendment the right of the Negro to the ballot on the same terms as other citizens be recognized in every part of the country.

With these resolutions all seemed satisfied but the further question of practical work brought out the diversity of radical, disagreeing elements seeking unity but undecided and unsettled among themselves. The debate was warm and even passionate; the main points were often lost in clouds of words; impatience and anger appeared and out of all cropped suspicion. A woman leapt to her feet and cried in passionate, almost tearful earnestness—an earnestness born of bitter experience—"They are betraying us again—these white friends of ours."

But through all this the mass of the conference kept calm and goodnatured. They were not certain of everything but they had faith and they quietly voted through the plan of organization which

the grandson of William Lloyd Garrison had ably outlined; a committee of forty on permanent organization and eventually a great central committee on the Negro problem, endowed, divided into carefully arranged and efficient departments of legal advice, social investigation, publicity, political propaganda and education.

So the conference adjourned. Its net result was the vision of future co-operation, not simply as in the past, between giver and beggar—the older ideal of charity—but a new alliance between experienced social workers and reformers in touch on the one hand with scientific philanthropy and on the other with the great struggling mass of laborers of all kinds, whose condition and needs know no color line.

CAN THE STATES CO-OPERATE FOR LABOR LEGISLATION?¹

ERNST FREUND

CHICAGO UNIVERSITY, AUTHOR OF THE POLICE POWER, PRESIDENT OF ILLINOIS BRANCH OF
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

Among the important federal states of the world, the United States is conspicuous for its almost total lack of power to enact social legislation. The word "social legislation" and the things that it stands for were equally unfamiliar at the time when the federal constitution was formed, and it is not surprising that in the distribution of powers the subject should have been ignored.

The British-North America act and the constitution of the North German Confederation, both of 1867, likewise antedate the era of modern labor legislation. In Canada, however, the dominion was given residuary legislative powers, and Germany, in assigning to the federal government, although with very different purposes in view, the subjects of trade and insurance, found herself free, when labor interests began to insist upon effective recognition, to meet some of their most important problems by imperial legislation. Switzerland in 1874

expressly mentioned as federal subjects hours of labor and the care of health in factories, and in 1890 a constitutional amendment added accident and sick insurance. Australia in 1900 at once gave to the federated commonwealth jurisdiction regarding invalid and old age pensions, state insurance, and industrial conciliation, and by a wise provision allowed any two or more of the states to refer to the federal parliament any matters to be regulated for the referring states jointly.

In Europe even national legislation has been thought inadequate for the protection of labor interests. The Berne Convention of 1906 is the first attempt to meet the industrial rivalry between different countries by international agreement. Limited at present to the prohibition of night work for women in industrial employments, and of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches, this step in international labor legislation opens up a wide area of future possibilities.

¹ For editorial reference see page 403.

The international aspect of the problem is not at present urgent in this country. For some time to come all effort for wider control will be directed toward breaking down state lines, and even this limited aspiration is not unopposed.

It is very questionable whether even at the present day, if we had to remake our constitution, we should follow the example of Germany and Switzerland. The sentiment that for the management of internal police there should be a smaller unit than the nation is still strong, and in view of our enormous territory with its diversified interests, intelligible.

However, if we had a perfectly free hand in selecting these smaller units, it is reasonably certain that we should not bound them by the arbitrary and mechanical lines of our forty-six states. There may be deep-seated economic differences between Massachusetts and South Carolina, or between Wisconsin and Louisiana, but certainly not between Connecticut and Rhode Island, or between Ohio and Indiana.

A glance at the map of the United States shows the existence of sections which naturally belong together. New England, the Piedmont region, the Gulf states, the Ohio Valley, the Pacific Coast, etc. The economic unity of neighboring states is naturally intensified on the border districts, in which the enforcement of separate laws with varying degrees of stringency presents distinct and difficult problems.¹

Is there any way, under the constitution, of meeting sectional with legislative solidarity?

I believe it was Mr. Root who some time ago called attention to the dormant possibilities of the clause of the federal constitution which forbids states to enter into compacts or agreements with other states without the consent of Congress, and thereby impliedly sanctions agreements between the states subject to such consent.

Suppose a number of states should want to join in an agreement similar to the one concluded by the signatories of

the Berne Convention. If they followed the European method, they would (with the approval of Congress) become parties to a convention, to be carried out by separate state legislation. Such a convention would require the preliminary authorization of the legislatures of the states concerned—a condition by which the European states are not hampered; but could a subsequent legislature be relied upon to carry out the convention? There would be no way of either judicially or politically enforcing compliance with the agreement to legislate, and if a state should contend that under its constitution the legislature authorizing the convention had no power to bind its successor, that would end the matter. This particular difficulty would be avoided by a form of joint action whereby each state would make the taking effect and continuance of its laws dependent upon like legislation by the other or others; but the process would be equally novel and unprecedented.

For the present any plan of state co-operation must be dismissed as impracticable which would fetter the freedom of state legislative action in a very direct and outspoken manner.

Therefore the most promising field for co-operation through formal agreement must be found in directions where the resulting action would be in the first instance voluntary or non-compulsory. The creation of joint bureaus and commissions suggests itself as the most likely and the most fruitful form of such action. All legislation tends to become more and more technical and scientific. Much of the regulation of labor reduces itself to questions of classification, of devices, of standards, of statistical facts, of dangers, risks, and tendencies capable of more or less accurate measurement. Why should not the elaboration of such matters be committed to boards of experts maintained by a number of states in common, thus securing a higher grade of service and authority at reduced expense? The data thus worked out and laid down from time to time would then furnish standards to which the legislation of the several states might advance.

¹ See W. E. Miller, *The Child Labor Situation in Ohio and Border States*, 29 *Annals American Academy*, p. 71.

tageously refer with resulting uniformity. We have a precedent for this, sustained by the Supreme Court, in the federal safety appliance act of 1893 which leaves the designation of the standard height of drawbars for freight cars to the American Railway Association. It is unnecessary to speculate to what extent a similar system might be utilized to determine questions connected with indemnity, insurance, etc.

The problem of wise and efficient legislation could also be much simplified, if the more technical features common to all labor laws, relating to proper methods of enforcement, to prevention of evasion, to incidence of duties, to means of control and publicity, and to continually recurring questions of construction, could be separated, consolidated, and made uniform for the different states. It has been possible to administer the most diverse tariff policies under unchanging customs administrative laws; why is the same thing not possible for labor legislation? The National Conference of Commissioners of Uniform State Laws would here find a new and promising field of activity for its useful labors.

For a considerable time to come we cannot hope for uniformity of labor legislation policies on a national scale. A recognition of this fact should not be un-

favorable to the exertion of proper efforts to secure uniformity of policy for sections or groups of states with similar industrial conditions and a similar state of public opinion. It is possible that we have offset excessive separatism in legislation by excessive nationalism in the work of agitation and initiation.

There are other ways besides formal compacts or reciprocal legislation in which neighboring states can combine to secure uniformity of regulation. Conferences of governors have, in recent years, been called repeatedly, so in the New England states. The conspicuous character of such a gathering would make peculiarly appropriate the inauguration of common policies. Many of the tentative solutions offered for labor problems are untried in this country, and viewed with suspicion or alarm. A great subject like industrial insurance must be brought and kept before the public mind for years until public opinion is educated up to it. The momentum that would be given to the agitation of this matter through a governors' conference would be a factor not to be underestimated. But whatever form might be chosen and whatever phase of labor legislation might be concerned, two or three states acting in concert might be expected to reach results more wisely and efficiently than one.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, has just brought out a two-fold justification of faith and works in a small brochure entitled *The Meaning of the Social Settlement Movement*: two-fold in that it contains a summary of a decade and a half of work, and is issued from the printing shop of the house.

The book is equally divided between philosophy and history with the purpose "to give a clearer understanding of the settlement movement in general, and of Kingsley House, in particular." The first chapter treats sympathetically of the rise of the settlement movement in England and its transfer to the United States, together with a short exposition of settlement philosophy. It effectively voices the protest of a majority of settlement workers against the indiscriminate application of the term "settlement" and "settlement worker" to institutions and persons who not only do not em-

body the settlement spirit or ideal, but are sometimes in effective antagonism to both.

The chapter on the Religious Significance of the Settlement Movement is doubly interesting and significant, coming from a churchman and a house so closely identified in its origin with a church. While giving the church full credit for its share in the development of the movement, Mr. Matthews feels keenly the failure of organized Christianity to express the gospel of which it is in possession. The settlement worker thinks of religion "not as something apart from everyday life—but as an attempt to carry the spirit of truth, hope and love into all the common affairs of life. The doctrine of the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of Man, unless it is expressed in terms of social service, is an empty abstraction." And to one who later reads the record of work it becomes evident that the best justifica-

tion of the writer's condemnation of so much Christianity is in the activity of the house itself.

What is coming to be felt as the current settlement attitude toward "charity" is set forth in the third chapter. Mr. Matthews disclaims the settlement a "charity," in the ordinary use of that term. It occupies the same sphere as a library or an art museum or any other agency for the spiritual development of the community. It occasionally provides help to such of its members as may fall into pressing need. In such case it refuses the services of a professional visitor for the same reason that it would refuse such service for a friend. With its neighbors "there is no need of inquiry or investigation; no need of a professional visitor to determine as to whether the family shall be classified as 'worthy' or 'unworthy.'" With no suggestion of charity, but by the right won through an established companionship and friendship with such a family, the guiding and helpful hand of the settlement may be extended to lighten the load and to make sure a return to the former and normal condition." Relief, moreover, will be confined to such cases, for the settlement cannot attempt to minister to that portion of the community which continually oscillates between dependence and self-support. This class demands the study and treatment available through agencies making a specialty of such work.

The second portion of the book deals with the work of the house; and this portion is made unusually significant by a summary of the work of a decade and a half. Founded in 1893 by Dean Hodges as the result of a sermon preached before Calvary Church, the house has occupied a continuously increasing and valuable place in the community. It began its career at 17 West Penn avenue, but moved in 1901 to its present location in the "Hill District" above the Union Station. In addition to the organized work, which has constantly grown in size and efficiency, the house has done large public service in educating the community

to the problems of its city. For some years it called attention, by photographs and articles, to the wretched housing conditions in its district, and a great deal of credit for improvements already begun must go to this effective and steadily continued work. The house conducted a playground in 1903, which it has since turned over to the Pittsburgh Playground Association; and has taken a prominent part in many other movements toward city welfare.

In 1902 the association began summer outings on a sixty-acre farm at Valencia, Pa., a work which has grown continuously since that time, until in 1908 it provided for its guests 940 two-week vacations, 479 week vacations, 101 week ends and 1,837 day excursions.

The book is enriched by photographs and quotations. While written for persons familiar with Pittsburgh, the inspiration that comes in considering fifteen years of continued and progressive work, together with its store of general information, make it good reading for any one interested in the settlement movement.

* * *

The proceedings of the Conference of Governors in the White House, May 13-15, 1908, have been issued in volume form for distribution through senators, representatives and the White House. The book is one of 450 pages and as a permanent record of this pioneer gathering of forces to consider the preservation of national wealth, it will have historic significance. Beyond that, it has the current value of massed facts—not only the addresses given by President Roosevelt, James J. Hill, Andrew Carnegie, and the notable governors and jurists at the meeting, but a number of scientific papers covering the points at issue in the conservation of mineral, land and water resources. The volume is a veritable apotheosis of waterfalls, cows and corn stalks, hemlock trees and coal beds. They become the elements of a new statcraft on the welfare of the future.

COMMUNICATIONS

NEED FOR EMPLOYMENT BUREAU

TO THE EDITOR:

A *propos* of the free public employment bureau question perhaps a mere academician may venture a suggestion. Not the least of the evils of immobility of labor is to be looked for exactly in the place where one of the greatest opportunities for useful service and diverse employment is supposed to exist. I refer to the college senior about to doff his cap and gown, tuck his diploma into the bottom of his trunk, and sally forth to do good and earn his living. "Social service" is the watchword now in college circles, from the most idealistic chapel prayer to the courses in required mathematics. In the colleges

—however it may be in the universities—"society" is dinged into his ear from morning till night, Sundays included, until he sometimes wonders whether it may not be some sort of fetish, for which people are demanding him to give up the pursuit of his own individuality. Ordinarily, however, he responds nobly to the "call," in theory. When it comes to the scratch he is not sure, often, where the call comes from, or how he can get there.

On the other hand our good friends, the social surveyors, investigators, charity directors, secretaries, and social servants in general tell us they cannot get men and women enough to supply the demand. Something then should be done to bring the sources of

demand nearer the potential supply of talent for the various lines of social service. In the one college I happen to know the best, there undoubtedly exists a very strong desire on the part of an unusually large number of students to "get into social work." It is not much exaggeration, however, to say that the only avenues most students see into that, to them, romantic field are the ministry, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. secretaryships, missionary work in the South or in the foreign field, or charity work in the narrow sense. Admirable as all these callings are, not all who have the divine desire to serve God rather than Mammon are fitted for them either by taste or intellectual equipment. I have no doubt that a less vague knowledge of the significance of "social service" and some word from those engaged in it and directing its many enterprises as to what preparation to make in college, what the various openings for college graduates of proper training are, and what technical training after graduation is necessary or desirable for the various new callings opening up, would quickly call forth a supply of vigorous young talent that would swamp the demand. There is much undiscovered talent in the smaller colleges of the country, and the best part of it in such places is that it is coupled with a rural vigor, an earnestness, a desire to do something worth while, "to make good," that is more often lacking in more favored aggregations of students. I recently visited a small Ohio college in the midst of a mill country, three miles from the nearest railroad station, and drawing its students largely from one religious denomination and from the rural communities round about. I venture to guess, however, from the types I saw there, that that college could supply as potentially effective social workers—were the way only opened by a knowledge of the demand—as can be drafted from many a more pretentious institution. This does not at all mean that any small college regardless of situation, faculty, or material equipment can turn out as well-educated men and women as Dartmouth or Oberlin, but simply that in dozens of these relatively unknown, obscure institutions there are boys and girls who will think themselves fortunate to grind out the years in a routine of school teaching at four hundred or a thousand dollars a year who might just as well be developing fine energy and efficiency in those fields of work which the Sage Foundation and other instrumentalities are opening up. There is no lack of ability, if the people on the firing line will only come and tell the colleges what they want. We need concrete information from those who know what is to be done and the kind of people wanted to do it.

Would it not be worth while, therefore, by printed matter sent to all the colleges and higher educational institutions, or by the sending of lecturers, or at least by so much as publishing an article or two in *THE SURVEY*, to bring concretely to the attention of

these potentially willing social servants the possibilities open to them?

The broader charity can perhaps do two things—it can find out what is the matter and it can tell our educational privileged class, the college students, how they can help in the search.

A. B. WOLFE.

Oberlin, O.

[We publish very willingly this specific and reasonable demand for information. In partial response to it, the editors may add that we have personal knowledge at this writing of one position in Boston, one in Philadelphia, and two in New York at salaries from three thousand dollars a year to any larger amount which it may be necessary to pay to secure a satisfactory candidate. The college graduates to whom Dr. Wolfe refers will have to be content to spend a year or more in direct professional preparation and a few years more in demonstrating their capacity before they can seriously be considered for such positions. We invite fuller response from the federal and state bureaus, the Russell Sage Foundation, the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the schools of philanthropy, or any others who are in position to speak.—*ED. SURVEY.*]

PHILANTHROPY AND DEMOCRACY

TO THE EDITOR:—

The question of the relations between philanthropy and democracy is a complicated one, and your editorials and the communications recently published have not exhausted the subject, so I hope you will publish something from a different viewpoint—a radical viewpoint, if the new title of your journal, *THE SURVEY*, leaves room for radical utterances.

I agree with Mr. Howson that we have concern with the effects rather than the motives of philanthropy, and that the two have small relation. The question at bottom is this: Is philanthropy (not "socialistic" philanthropy but private philanthropy) an aid or a hindrance to the realization of social justice in the broadest sense of the term? Now there is no doubt that philanthropy is a powerful aid to the coming "standardized industry" as Professor Ross has called it. In fact, it is philanthropy that has made these standards clear, and that they are fast becoming part of the industrial system of the country, the growth of welfare work and of voluntary pension and compensation schemes indicates. Moreover, the coming of the new feudalism, which will care for and conserve the powers of the human industrial tool as the lord of the manor looked after the human agricultural implement, is in small degree dependent on the wishes or action of the working classes, and undoubtedly philanthropy does strengthen the position of the masters of industry in the minds of the intelligent "new middle

class," i.e., the managers and responsible salaried subordinates of "trust" industry, as well as in the active support of the opinion-forming classes—the teachers, journalists, clergymen, etc.

But is there not a "socialized industry" which is something more than a "standardized industry." The criterion of social justice in every civilized community, I take it, is, and always has been, not how large is or how intense is the misery of the social debtor class, but what is done with the social surplus of industry? It used to build pyramids, to create a landed or ecclesiastical or literary aristocracy, to conduct wars, or to provide the means of a sensuous life for the majority of a privileged class, and the means of dilettanteism for a minority of it? The difference between the near-socialist and the true socialist is principally that the main attention of the former is given to the negative side of the social problem—the condition of the submerged classes, while that of the latter is given to the positive side of the problem—the wonderful development, power, and life that would come to the race and the individual if a wise and social use were made of the surplus of industry. Unrestrained capitalism has hitherto invariably meant the physical deterioration of the working class and the marginal disintegration of society—the loosening of social ties, and the pushing of the marginal members of society over the brink into poverty, pauperism, vagrancy, drunkenness, prostitution, wife-desertion, and crime, but this deterioration and disintegration are not the main indictment against capitalism, and will be remedied by the wiser capitalists themselves. The main indictment against capitalism is that it selfishly and stupidly blocks the road of ordered and continuous progress for the race. Is not then philanthropy an aid to capitalism in delaying the progress of the race?

We do not wish to be misunderstood in this matter. We are ourselves engaged in "social work" and would not be so engaged if we did not approve of it in its main features. We appreciate the good being accomplished by social workers, and as a socialist gladly take every addition to the standard of living that may be wrested or argued from the capitalist class; for we know no undernourished class ever won a fight against economic exploitation, and that the more is given, the more will be demanded and secured. We do not, however, on this account, allow ourselves to be used as the tool of the capitalist class, nor entertain exaggerated notions as to the part we play as a "social worker" in the struggle for social justice. That part of it we attend to through the ballot and an increasing number of "social workers" are doing the same.

A SOCIALIST "SOCIAL WORKER."

CLASSES AND PRIVILEGES

TO THE EDITOR:

The fundamental conflict in the world to-day is between the privileged and the non-privileged, and the basis of the most serious distinctions is social. If any country through concerted action of any kind could prevent the erection of social barriers, on the one side of which are found a sense of inferiority and an unhopeful resignation to this inferiority, and on the other side a sense of superiority and a more or less cruel assertion of this superiority,—if, I say, these barriers could be removed, the human race would once and for all be safe from all but a small residuum of the desperately poor. I firmly believe that the untrammelled spirit of man in a fairly robust body obtains a fair share of this world's goods. This spirit is a delicate thing, and can be trammelled very easily, as kings, nobles and gentry and rich tradesmen and every privileged class have known from the beginning of the history of mankind.

I have nothing to say against the English education from the standpoint of the Englishman, but I am wofully disappointed to find that its externals confuse so many Americans and make them lukewarm towards educational aims and methods at home.

The English are skeptical regarding the possibility of our retaining a sense of equality throughout the population of the United States. Perhaps they are right; and the discerning observer will see indications of change in that direction. One might mention the introduction of classes upon our railroads, our lines of coast steamships and at least the Canadian lake boats, as setting up English, and obviously social, distinctions. These classes upon public means of transportation permit certain people, upon admission of social inferiority, to obtain in an inferior form something which in its superior form is reserved for a privileged class. I, myself, have no patience with those who say that accommodation is merely sold in such and such a quality at such and such a price. It is just the other way. Certain people are permitted to buy a separation from their fellowmen which it is, upon the largest social grounds, rather doubtful whether they ought to have the means of paying for.

The establishment of schools which are intended to produce industrial service for a privileged class sickens me at heart. Sometimes I almost wish that I had not been born in this country founded upon the principle that all men are created free and equal, since degenerate descendants of its founders, yielding to the steady pressure of foreign prejudice, seem all too ready to abandon the great principle, from mere lack of courage to give it a fair trial. If there are enough independent Americans left to accept the philosophical and logical consequences of equality of opportunity, just a little common

sense in guarding our borders would, I believe, still save our American experiment.

Some time, somewhere, some nation will arise which will say to the Englishman, the German, the Frenchman, and alas! the degenerate American, that every child born into the world is as much entitled to every privilege, every chance and every dignity as any other child. Such a nation will be not only the happiest but the only impregnable nation the world has ever known.

Coming back from abroad and realizing how different things might be in this country, one cannot help exclaiming, "Alas, that we should allow ourselves to be conquered by foreign ideas when, having thrown off the foreign yoke, we had the wonderful vantage ground of distance to defend ourselves from the more insidious foe,—a vicious foreign example!" Foreign example must be vicious, if we admit that real democracy is the only solution of social problems that promises permanence.

J. REMSEN BISHOP,
Principal Eastern High School,
Detroit, Mich.

JUDGE POLLARD'S PLAN

TO THE EDITOR:

I have just seen an interesting article in your issue of *Charities and The Commons* of January 16 on Judge Pollard's plan and as you say, it will be interesting to know what success has attended the effort in England, the facts which I can give will, I am sure, be gratifying to your readers.

Judge Pollard's plan in England dates from the autumn of 1906 when the judge was here on vacation. I sought out the judge, and as a result of a long talk with him, he convinced me that his plan was at least worth a trial as a means of reclaiming some of the 500,000 drunkards who are convicted every year in Christian England. After a strenuous agitation—which was initiated by large public meetings and receptions by lord provosts, mayors, members of Parliament, all of which were addressed by Judge Pollard,—the British government were induced to add, what is practically Judge Pollard's plan, to a probation bill then before the House of Commons, and it came into operation January 1, 1908. Our government has realized that the old method of fine and imprisonment has signally failed to have any marked effect in reforming offenders. Politicians and magistrates therefore welcomed Judge Pollard's method as being new, novel and withal, reformative.

After one year's working they have not been disappointed. Hundreds of offenders have been given the benefits of the "act" and permanently reclaimed.

Judge Wallace, king's counsel, addressing the grand jury said "he was happy to report a great diminution both in the numbers and quality of the crimes investigated, and from

a report which had been submitted to him by the probation officer, he was happy to say that ninety per cent of those who had been allowed out under probation had been striving to make use of the opportunity offered them to lead better lives."

In another part of London 430 prisoners were given the benefit of the act and in only thirty did the offenders revert to their original ways. Similar good results have accrued in Manchester and wherever the act has been tried.

In Leicester a soldier was charged with stealing whilst drunk; the magistrates put him upon Pollard's plan on pledge. If they had convicted him he would have been dismissed the army. In another court a naval officer, who was charged with drunkenness, was convicted. That conviction degraded him in the service of his king and may result in his leaving the service. The latter method ruins a man and his career, whilst Pollard's method saves him.

In Leicester so many drunkards have been reclaimed already that they have formed themselves into what has been called a "drunks' church." They hold meetings every night and all day Sunday. Five of the members of this church have 1,000 convictions recorded against them, but Pollard's plan has saved them.

Pollard's plan has indeed brought blessings to countless homes.

WALTER EAST,
Honorary Secretary National Independent
Temperance Party.

NEW ENGLAND'S "TEN HOUR DAY"

TO THE EDITOR:

In an article in your issue of May 29 on Pennsylvania's new child labor laws, I inadvertently spoke of the New England states as allowing an "average ten hour day" for children under sixteen years of age. This is not quite the fact. Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Connecticut allow fifty-eight hours per week, which is an average of nine and two-thirds hours a day. The new Pennsylvania law is the same. With a half day on Saturday this ordinarily means about ten and one-half hours on the other days of the week. Massachusetts is boldly taking the first step to improve this condition, for on January 1, 1910, the law that state passed a year or two ago will take effect, establishing the fifty-six hour week. Rhode Island has also just passed a fifty-six hour law.

Yours sincerely,
FRED S. HALL,
Secretary Penn. Child Labor Association.

EVILS OF MONOPOLY

TO THE EDITOR:

I note that you examine conditions of life and labor, and point where they fail; how long hours, low pay, insanitary housing, dis-

ease, intemperance, indiscriminate charity and lack of recreation break down character and efficiency.

Is it by inadvertence or by intention that you have omitted monopoly, that seems to so many of us to be the self-evident main cause of long hours and of at least half a dozen other symptoms that you are to examine?

I was delighted with your Pittsburgh issues; that is great work.

BOLTON HALL.

New York.



HUMAN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

TO THE EDITOR:

Industry is the dominant factor in the life of our time. The greatest achievements are industrial, the worst evils are industrial, and the problems which press hardest for solution are industrial. The reason is not far to seek. It lies in the discovery and development of mechanical power. No physical limit is any longer set to the "mania for making things." Steam and electricity, applied through machines, have changed the methods of doing the world's work. They have increased amazingly the variety, form and quantity of the available resources of the earth. It is scarcely a cause for wonder that the value and importance of process and product should be magnified. Yet forces have been only released, not fully mastered. These forces act not alone upon matter, but

upon men as well. The products of mine and field are gathered, transported and transformed. The scope of the process is world-wide and its results affect all men. The cost of the process in human life is not calculated with so great care as is the depreciation in value of machinery, nor is the result so nicely adjusted to human need as is the supply of raw material to finished product. Looms weave great quantities of cloth while children are consumed at the spindle as is coal in the furnace. The steamer makes speed though the stoker is sacrificed. Every large application of mechanical power brings economy, but the gain does not go to the many. Physical want and mental atrophy abound in the presence of plenty. The need of the present is intelligent purpose so to direct mechanical power that its application and results shall be most widely beneficial to men. The emphasis now laid upon industrial education is an expression of this need. What is industrial education to do? Is it to stimulate invention and afford training for the operation of machines so that a larger output of better quality may be secured? This is well, but it is not all. Education should also develop a faculty to recognize, as of first importance, the effect of process and product upon human life. In other words, education should provide ability to make machines serve men rather than prepare men to tend machines.

STARRE CADWALLADER.

Cleveland.

JOTTINGS

Country Place Offered Free.—The Hudson County Institute at Claverack, Columbia county, N. Y., which was formerly a large school, has been offered for use as a convalescent home, sanatorium or other similar charitable institution. John C. Havemeyer of Yonkers, the owner, will sell it at a reasonable price or consider applications from organizations willing to accept it as a gift.



The property consists of two large buildings containing about 250 rooms, including a chapel and a large room suitable for a gymnasium. It has a steam plant, spring water and connection can be made with the Hudson electric lighting system. With the buildings go two acres of land shaded by about 500

large trees and commanding a fine view of the Catskills. Claverack is three and a half miles from the city of Hudson and the latter 115 miles from New York on the Chatham branch of the Boston and Albany railroad. The Hudson River Day Line and a proposed trolley line make access easy.

Credit to Israels and Harder.—We regret that through an oversight in our issue of June 5 proper credit was not given to the architects, Israels and Harder, N. Y., under the photograph of the Theater Unique. The name of this firm is coincident with the "new social idea" that is entering the professions.

Immigrant Societies Merged.—An interesting example of a charity merger to prevent overlapping effort and to increase efficiency has been offered by the Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society and the Hebrew Sheltering House of New York. By suggestion of Jacob H. Schiff they have combined as the Hebrew Shelter and Aid Society. The aim of the organization is to steer immigrants past New York and other congested cities, by means of agents on arriving steamers and eventually, it is hoped, in Europe as well.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

JANE ADDAMS PRESIDENT OF 1910 CONFERENCE

Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, has been elected president of the next National Conference of Charities and Correction which will meet in St. Louis in 1910. That city will have to work to beat the Buffalo meeting which adjourned on Wednesday of this week. In 1888 the conference met in Buffalo with a few hundred out-of-town delegates. Over 1,500 registered at this year's conference, and the Central Presbyterian Church with a seating capacity of 1,800 was taxed at each of the general sessions.

The section meetings were held in the committee rooms of the church and in the Y. M. C. A. building, the conference headquarters. Next week's issue of THE SURVEY will describe the conference in detail. Each committee chairman will tell of the work of his own section, preceded by a general account of the meetings.

TO MAKE TRUANCY BUREAU EFFECTIVE

The conference on truancy held June 4 in the United Charities Building, New York, under the auspices of the Compulsory Education Committee of the Public Education Association, grew out of the need for co-operation in enforcing the new compulsory education law recently signed by Governor Hughes. This law, known as the Brough bill, puts the beginning of the compulsory school age at six instead of seven years and includes June and September in the compulsory period. Upon these points the organizations interested in truancy in New York city had been able to agree. The law made no change in the manner of en-

forcement. Many different suggestions were made during the legislative session as to methods of improving the present system of enforcement and this conference, representing many organizations, undertook to review these suggestions and work out some definite plan.

The state education authorities were represented by Mr. Sullivan, state superintendent of compulsory education, and Mr. Gilbert, the legal adviser of Commissioner Draper. Mr. Sullivan urged that the School Census Bureau to be established in cities of the first class on October 1, be organized in an effective way to take a permanent census of school children. It was shown that such a census, corrected daily by reports received from the station houses of the city as to removals, would make possible the location of all children not at present in school and go far toward preventing truancy. The organization of the bureau is at present hampered by an inadequate appropriation by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

Mrs. Florence Kelley pointed out the desirability of receiving from the state department some definite statistics as to the cost of such bureaus in other cities and the approximate cost of efficient organization of the bureau for New York. In the discussion which ensued, representatives from the parochial and children's aid schools promised to co-operate in eliminating truancy. Dr. Reigart explained to the conference the London system of a truant bureau taking care of both the school census and the truant officers.

As a result of the conference, the chairman, E. S. Whitin, was authorized to appoint a committee to wait on Dr. Maxwell and recommend the establishment of a department of compulsory education

under the Board of Education and to suggest that as a means of co-operation the secretary of the School Census Bureau be the chief of the compulsory education department.

A second conference will be held in the early autumn to hear the report of the committee and discuss the desirability of appealing to the Board of Estimate for an appropriation sufficient to maintain the bureau.

FROM PHILANTHROPY TO SOCIAL ECONOMY

Beginning September 1 the St. Louis School of Philanthropy will sever its affiliation with the University of Missouri and become a regular professional school of Washington University, St. Louis, with a new name—the St. Louis School

Dr. Riley was graduated from Baker University in 1900, and received his doctor's degree at the University of Chicago in 1904. His thesis, *The Higher Life of Chicago*, has been published by the University of Chicago Press. He has been director of the St. Louis school since 1906, developing it from a hope to a real school. Under the new connection its work will be greatly broadened, and it will be much better equipped to interpret and serve the quickly growing interest in social service in its territory.

Dr. Mangold, who is a graduate of the University of Chicago and the University of Wisconsin, has been in charge of the research work in the School of Philanthropy the past year, following work at the University of Pennsylvania and in the United States Bureau of Labor.

BELLEVUE'S DAY CAMP FOR TUBERCULOUS CHILDREN

The old Staten Island ferry-boat, which by a gradual metamorphosis has come to fulfill admirably the requirements of a day camp for the tuberculosis patients of the Bellevue Clinic, has in the past year extended its sphere of usefulness to the children, and in so doing has afforded opportunity for some interesting experiments in the management of these little patients, in whom lies, according to modern theories, the crux of the whole tuberculosis problem.

For the most part these children are not very ill, but present to the lay eye simply the pale, under-developed and under-nourished types so familiar from many other causes than tuberculosis. The fresh, open air and the good, nourishing food at the camp are all that are needed to bring color and freshness to their cheeks and animation to their bodies and spirits. These most gratifying results have been obtained in almost every case among the children at the camp, who have numbered about fifty in daily attendance, and about 100 in all during the past year.

To stop short with this attainment of regained good health has, however, been impossible. Released from school restraint and invigorated by the constant out-of-door life, the children's natural



THOMAS J. RILEY.

of Social Economy. Thomas J. Riley, who continues as director, will be made professor of sociology at the university, taking with him his assistant, G. B. Mangold.



BELLEVUE CLINIC'S OUTDOOR SCHOOL.

tendency was to run wild from sheer excess of animal spirits to the destruction of discipline and to their own moral ruin-ation.

How properly to divert this natural energy into wholesome channels and yet not interfere with any essential of their "cure" was the problem to be solved. How it has been worked out may not be uninteresting.

Light manual occupation was a natural first resource. To this end each child was made responsible for the proper care of his own clothing, blankets and "rest hour" cot, together with a not always familiar use as well as care of such toilet articles as brushes for the hair, teeth and shoes. Habits of neatness and cleanliness, as well as occupation, were thus obtained. In addition, two or three afternoons a week, a skilled teacher has trained the children in various handicrafts, including basket weaving, chair caning, hammock making, sewing and knitting, as well as the usual kindergarten means for diversion and occupation. The practical results obtained in this work

have been astonishing, and dozens of useful or pretty articles testify to their industry and skill.

Twice a week, in the morning, light calisthenic exercises have been given to classes of selected children by volunteers from Dr. Savage's School of Physical Culture; and one afternoon a week some of the ladies of the Woman's Auxiliary have conducted a singing class which has been a very popular success.

The Outdoor School, started in October, has been the greatest achievement, however. This was held on the upper deck all through the winter with an average roll of thirty-five children. It is a part of the public school system, the teacher being assigned by the Department of Education, and three ungraded classes are held each day, each for two or two and one-half hours. The object, from the standpoint of scholarship, has been to keep the child from retrograding in his studies on account of enforced absence from regular school, rather than to push him forward to keep up with his

grade. This result has been accomplished very successfully and next year, with two teachers instead of one, it is proposed to give each child additional school time, as no detriment to physical condition has resulted in any case from the school routine. During the summer the school will be continued, but with a lighter form of work, kindergartners having been assigned by the Department of Education for this purpose.

The latest and most novel experiment in occupation has just been instituted. It is the vegetable and flower garden, made possible through the efficient co-operation of the International Children's School Farm League, aided by donations



BELLEVUE SCHOOL GARDENS.

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from members of the Woman's Auxiliary.

The skilled experts of the farm league have prepared a plot fifty feet square in a corner of the Bellevue grounds adjoining the bulkhead where the day camp boat is moored. Fertile soil has been put in, the garden divided into small plots for vegetables with beds of flowers in the center and about the borders. The children are initiated into the mysteries of growing plants and taught elementary natural history by a trained expert from the league, and at the same time the physical condition of each one, with the amount of work

achieved, is carefully watched by the physicians and nurses of the camp. The intense eagerness with which the children have taken up this new occupation is not difficult to imagine, and while it is yet too early to speak of definite results, every indication now points to the brilliant success of the experiment, in an added physical, mental and moral development of the children under the influence of their beautiful little garden in the center of the great city.

CHICAGO SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY'S REPORT

The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy completed its sixth and most successful year on June 4. Eighty-seven students were registered, eleven for the full year's work, requiring their whole time, forty-four for one or more courses, twenty-two in the research department for special training in investigation. Twenty-nine of them were men and fifty-eight women. Courses given by the school are included in the curriculums of the Western Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church, the Young Men's Christian Association Training School, and the Chicago Theological Seminary. The eleven graduates came from Wisconsin, California, Ohio, Texas and Illinois. All of them had been graduated from college, university or professional school, or had qualified to take the training by experience in humanitarian work. Their theses reported results of special studies collateral to class work, and directly connected with their year's field-work under the supervision of specialists.

Since the withdrawal of Allen T. Burns, to become general secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, Prof. Graham Taylor, president of the school, has assumed the direction of its work, in which Miss Julia C. Lathrop and Miss S. P. Breckinridge are actively associated. Miss Breckinridge, in addition to her teaching, is in charge of the research department with Miss Edith Abbott as associate director.

The investigation of the juvenile delinquency with which the Juvenile Court at Chicago deals, was reported as nearly ready to be submitted to the Russell Sage

Foundation, under whose auspices it was made. An inquiry into housing conditions in Chicago has been undertaken at the official request of the city's health commissioner and chief sanitary inspector. Ten studentships have been awarded to six women and four men, all qualified by academic discipline and specialized studies. The research work is planned to afford not only exacting practice in the field of inquiry, but special training in statistics and methods of investigation.

The address at the closing session, The Scientific Basis for Social Advance was delivered by Prof. William E. Hotchkiss, dean of the School of Commerce and Administration in Northwestern University.

The summer session of the school opens June 22, and offers three courses on preventive, ameliorative and reconstructive movements; on occupational work for attendants in institutions for the insane and mentally defective; and on playground and recreation service. The last is to be given by the director of social and gymnasium work in the South Parks of Chicago, and the students will have full use of the parks' unsurpassed equipment for the field practice.

ATTITUDE OF COURT CHANGED BY NEW LAW

The act creating a Children's Court in Buffalo, which became law by Governor Hughes's recent signature, is highly significant because it indicates a complete change of attitude toward the offending child. In almost every part of the country are found police judges exercising the powers of juvenile court judges who, notwithstanding the fact that they are sitting in criminal courts, apply the principles of the chancellor in working out child problems. The explicit declarations found in many laws that the child is not to be treated as a criminal are valuable in thus writing into the body of the law itself a statement of what the court's attitude should be. It is for this reason that the Buffalo law is of great value. Up to this time children have been brought before children's courts in New York state by virtue of

certain proceedings under the penal law and the judgment against them was a conviction for crime.

The new law provides that a child charged with a misdemeanor shall, so far as is consistent with the interests of the child and of the state, be considered by the judge not as upon trial for the commission of a crime, but as a child in need of the care and protection of the state. To that end the judge may suspend the trial and inquire into all the facts and circumstances surrounding the case and, in his discretion, in lieu of proceeding with a trial, may adjudge the child to be in need of the care and protection of the state, if the child itself or a parent or guardian request such a proceeding at any point before conviction. Moreover, the court has power to place the child under probation before conviction, a power heretofore existing only after trial and conviction.

The Buffalo court as created is in accordance with the report and bill recommended by Governor Hughes's commission which made an inquiry into courts of inferior criminal jurisdiction in cities of the first class, and represents the views of a group of lawyers composing that commission. The preliminary report of the commission on other courts has been reviewed in THE SURVEY.

CONFERENCE ON WORK WITH ALIENS

The Pennsylvania Young Men's Christian Association has issued a call for a meeting at Harrisburg in October of all interested in social, religious or educational work among foreigners. There will be a survey of existing institutions and efforts, a comparison of methods and probably a permanent arrangement will be made to correlate such work in the future.

The meeting is timed to open shortly after the return of the five young men sent abroad by the Pennsylvania Y. M. C. A. to prepare themselves as special workers among foreign speaking colonies in the state. This is one of the newest and most interesting Y. M. C. A. developments. The five workers chosen are picked men in many respects. One was

a teacher, four were in business or farming before their college training. All are big men who have been gymnasium leaders and all can sing. To this sturdy equipment they have added at least a speaking acquaintance with three new tongues, experience of peasant life in the countries from which the greater number of laborers come to Pennsylvania, and a general historical background for their new work, gained through living and tramping in Hungary, German Poland, and Italy. Part of the time they were under direction of Prof. Edward A. Steiner of Grinnell and part with Pres. Edward B. Spencer of the Italian Methodist College at Rome. They will report to the conference in October and start at once on their new duties. While their immediate object is religious, the work will inevitably and consciously develop many social features.

Any who are interested in the conference may secure announcements as plans are completed, from E. B. Buckalew, Calder Building, Harrisburg, Pa.

PROPERTY BENEFITED BY TUBERCULOSIS SAN- ATORIUMS

That a tuberculosis sanatorium, hospital, or day camp is a benefit rather than a detriment to a community is proven by an investigation made by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis on the influence of a tuberculosis sanatorium on the value of surrounding property. In part the study was a continuation of a similar investigation made four years ago by William H. Baldwin of Washington.

In its investigation the national association considered thirty-seven institutions located in the following twenty-two states: New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Maryland, Connecticut, Vermont, Maine, Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri, Indiana, South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia, Colorado, New Mexico, California, Kentucky, Iowa, Texas, Oregon, and Arizona.

According to sanatorium authorities, real estate agents, and various disinter-

ested parties, 67.5 per cent of these sanatoriums have had a favorable influence upon surrounding property, and have been a benefit to the community in which they are located. In the case of twenty-three, or 62.2 per cent of the institutions, they helped definitely increase the assessed valuation of property. In only one instance was there a decrease in value, and it was due to ignorance of the facts. In twenty-two out of the thirty-seven cases, the sanatorium facilitated the sale of land, and in only four cases was any detrimental effect on sales shown. In 51.3 per cent of the cases the evidence shows that residents were attracted by the sanatorium, and in only three localities were they repelled.

Some examples show the increase in the value of surrounding property. In the vicinity of a sanatorium in Portland, Ore., land has more than doubled in value in three years, being in demand close to the sanatorium. At Aiken, S. C., property in the neighborhood of the local sanatorium has increased 400 per cent since the institution was built. At Hebron, Me., surrounding property has increased twenty per cent as a direct result of the presence of a tuberculosis sanatorium. The effect upon land values has been similar in Luzerne, Pa.; Liberty, N. Y.; Saranac Lake, N. Y.; Pittsford, Vt.; Mt. Vernon, Mo.; and Silver City, N. M. At Asheville, N. C., vacant lots near one of the sanatoriums sell at four times their price in 1900, and others farther from the institution but nearer the city are less valuable. In St. Louis, Philadelphia, New York, Brooklyn, Boston, Pittsburgh, and other large cities, property surrounding tuberculosis institutions has increased in price. Not a single instance was reported where the presence of a sanatorium, camp, or dispensary in a large city has had a detrimental effect on the value of property nearby.

The courts of Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Virginia have decided that a tuberculosis sanatorium is not a menace to the health of a community, or to the property in its vicinity.

In the country a sanatorium is obviously a benefit to the farmers because it affords a market for their produce and

gives more work. In the city merchants have testified that a sanatorium is a stimulus to trade.

The tuberculosis sanatorium has invariably been of value in raising local health standards—its establishment is followed by decreased spitting, the opening of windows and a general improvement in hygiene. Instead of a menace, a tuberculosis sanatorium may well be regarded as a benefit to the community in which it is located.

THE CHICAGO CITY GARDENS ASSOCIATION

LAURA DAINTY PELHAM

If any lingering doubts exist as to the possibility of vacant-lot gardening for those in need in large cities, the present experiment in Chicago, although in its infancy, will materially aid in casting them out. Every suggestion of difficulty in connection with the movement has been triumphantly met and swept aside. Land in plenty was to be had for the asking. Tools and material required in the preparation were at once offered, and the question most frequently raised by the skeptical, "Where will the people come from to till the gardens?" soon resolved itself into the puzzle of how to keep them off, so greatly in excess of space which could be made available the first season, the demand for lots became.

Two previous attempts along this line have been undertaken and abandoned in Chicago. In 1896, through the efforts of Mr. Weller of the Bureau of Charities, gardens were started in the Englewood district and continued until 1903 when the land was taken by the city for a small park. 1898 another tract was secured on West Twelfth street, near Forty-second avenue, and a large number of families who applied for relief were induced to make an effort to get out of the soil a part of the help they were seeking. The movement was hampered from the beginning by a lack of funds, but sufficient interest was aroused to secure the necessary seed and labor and the second year more applications for lots were received than could well be handled. Early in

the existence of Mr. Weller's "farm," a club of the gardeners was formed, which was afterward christened The People's Friendly Club. Once in two weeks these families met at Hull House, exchanged experiences, talked over their difficulties and renewed the courage which some way kept alive through the five seasons that followed. Then Mr. Weller went to Washington, a wet season came, there was no leader, the interest flagged, the gardens were abandoned, and the little friendly club as a farmers' organization, passed out of existence. Fortunately for the present gardens, however, it was continued as a social club, for it is out of this group of families that the best workers have been found, and the twenty or more farmers belonging to this club were the leaders in the rush for places on the land.

If carefully studied plans and a systematic effort make for success, the movement for city gardens in Chicago is now on a safe and permanent basis. Out of the small group of people who responded to the call for a meeting in February, 1909, to consider the subject, a board of managers was chosen, in whose hands practically everything was placed. It was no easy task which confronted this committee. Only two of the members were practical farmers, and everything must be secured: land, tools, money for labor, and the services of a perfectly competent superintendent, which our friend, the Vacant Lot Association in Philadelphia, which has from the beginning aided with advice and encouragement, assured us was one of the most essential factors in our success.

At first the committee considered small, scattered gardens in various sections of the city, and a canvass was made and permission secured for the use of much such property, but the International Harvester Company's generous offer of twenty or more acres in one tract made it seem wise and best to concentrate our first year's work on a single piece of land, and the "Harvester Garden" became our initial effort.

This land is located on Marshall boulevard, in a really ideal spot for such a purpose. Off to the south the clay banks of the drainage canal form a fine

barrier for possible marauders; the great McCormick works are to the east; the beautiful grounds of the House of Correction are just opposite, while on the northern boundary we have the Chicago river which at this point is clear and attractive. Marshall boulevard, always gay with automobiles and carriages, forms an angle here and bounds the gardens on two sides.

The land has been divided into eight-acre lots, 150 feet by 36. Between the lots there is a path two feet wide, and between the sections, A, B, C, and D, there is an eight foot roadway. Another year we hope to have several more sections on this tract, but this season, four, with twenty-five lots in each, seemed all that the committee could successfully manage. This furnishes land for 100 families and every inch of space is now occupied. Lots which were taken and given up for any cause, were eagerly seized by waiting families, and already many of the workers have spoken for their lots for another season. Most of the farmers have been sent by the various settlements and charity organizations, but the immediate neighborhood furnishes some, and the tuberculosis institute has several of its charges successfully working. A large number of applicants are friends of those who already have secured land for this year and it seems quite plain to the management that the difficulty in the immediate future will be, not in securing farmers, but in finding suitable places for them to carry on their work.

It was a sad meeting for this board when one of the wisest of its members announced that nothing could be started on our land until it had been tile-drained, and when a still more terrifying "bomb" had been projected by the same wise man in the shape of information that tile-draining would require an outlay of \$400 at least, the committee, for one awful moment, almost went into collapse. But after the first shock, the board rallied, divided itself into sub-committees, and bravely started out to ask for the help which public-spirited citizens of Chicago gave in "good measure, pressed down and running over." Not only drainage tile, sewer pipe and water pipe were

given, but money for labor, seed for the planting, large and small tools, and a substantial nest-egg towards the salary of the superintendent for the year.

Very early in the deliberations of the committee it was decided to have a definite plan for crops which should be sufficiently elastic to allow our Italian farmers plenty of room for garlic and peppers, our Irish friends potatoes, and our German contingent cabbages and kohlrabi, and still be regular enough to make a pleasing display and a profitable crop. Charles W. Pottinger, the successful superintendent of the farms which supply the Cook county institutions was the member of the board to whom this part of the work was assigned. His plan was at once adopted and is now being carried out by Mr. Fiske, the manager of our own gardens. The seed is planted across the lots, in rows thirty-six feet in length. The general plan is as follows:

- Onions, 8 rows.
- Parsley, onions, 1 row.
- Parsnips, 5 rows.
- Carrots, 3 rows.
- Swiss chard, 1 row.
- Lettuce, 1 row.
- Spinach, cucumbers (for pickles) 2 rows.
- Earliest peas, 1 row.
- Radishes, cucumbers, 1 row.
- Early peas, 1 row.
- Beets, turnips, 4 rows.
- Kohlrabi or peppers, 1 row.
- Cabbage (early), 1 row.
- Cabbage (late), 1 row.
- Peas, 4 rows.
- Beans, spinach, 8 rows.
- Potatoes, 10 rows.
- Potatoes, radishes, 4 rows.
- Potatoes, squash, 4 rows.
- Peas, tomatoes, 12 rows.
- Early cabbage, 9 rows.
- Sweet corn, beans, 2 rows.
- Hubbard squash, 1 row.
- Sweet corn, 2 rows.
- Pumpkins, 1 row.

It will be seen by this plan, that to a certain extent, intensive farming will be done, but in all cases as much latitude as possible will be allowed individual gardeners.

The bungalow, which is to be built by the Out-Door Art League, will be a welcome addition to the garden and the roomy porches on three sides will give shelter to many tired mothers and sleeping babies. The bungalow will occupy the south west corner of the tract, and

will contain two large rest rooms, tool closet and lavatories. Adjoining the bungalow on the east side, the United Charities will establish a playground for the children and nearby will be the model garden of the superintendent.

An abundant water supply protects the gardeners against possible drought, and provision is being made for helping hands for those whose strength may fail on occasion. The wise leadership of our superintendent, backed by the enthusiasm of the committee, we feel sure will hold in line the few stragglers who, unaccustomed to systematic effort, might if left alone fall by the wayside, and so the very small per cent of chance of failure is minimized to practically nothing.

Next year we hope to give results that will show our effort is worth while. At present we can only state our purpose, which cannot be done in better words than to quote from the Philadelphia Vacant Lot Association: "Not to give charity, but to open an opportunity for those in need, to help themselves by their own work."

ADVERTISING ETHICS AND THE GENERAL WELFARE

E. D. HULBERT

Chicago

There is an old saying that "it is easier to get money than to keep it." This is true to a greater extent than it ought to be or need be, and deserves more attention than it is getting from those who believe in promoting the general welfare through the betterment of the material welfare of the individual.

Between the very rich and the very poor there is a great mass of people who, at some period of their lives, earn more money than they require for immediate necessities and the disposition they make of this surplus is a matter of the greatest importance. Some of it is wasted in gambling, drinking and other vices; some is put in banks; some is lost in fraudulent investment schemes; some is lost in investment schemes not fraudulent, but unsound, and some is safely and wisely in-

vested in a way to start the owner on the road to independence.

Those who are addicted to vice have, in my opinion, quite as many people working for their reclamation as is worth while from an economic standpoint; the proper regulation and safeguarding of the banking business is not being neglected in public discussions; the very great number of people, however, whose annual losses in fraudulent and unsound investment schemes aggregate hundreds of millions of dollars are receiving comparatively little attention. This is most unfortunate, as these are the people of the most importance to the general welfare; they are neither weak and reckless like those who indulge in vice, nor cowardly and lazy like those who keep their savings always in banks because they lack the courage or enterprise to make investments. These people are reached largely through advertisements in the public press.

From the nature of the case, those who have either fraudulent or unsound schemes to promote can afford to and do spend large sums of money in advertising and their patronage is of great money value to newspapers. Naturally the newspapers are slow to attack these liberal patrons and it is very difficult to crystallize public opinion without newspaper help.

There is an old saying that "it is the knavish doctrine of *caveat emptor*, "let the buyer beware," is the inspiration of most decisions in cases of fraud. Some of our courts are now holding that, even if the promoter does issue a false prospectus and thereby induces people to invest in the securities of a corporation, this does not constitute a scheme to defraud and is not punishable.

The newspapers almost universally claim for their advertising space the rights of the "common carrier" to serve as a public vehicle without responsibility for the character of the merchandise carried. They seem to forget that while the common carrier is not permitted to carry merchandise which endangers the communities though which it is carried, the newspaper is permitted to carry into

every household that which may, and often does do irreparable injury.

The postal laws, if actively enforced against fraudulent use of the mails, would save a vast amount of money every year, but as at present administered, they are no great check to the swindler. The government rarely acts on its own initiative and the most glaring swindles are allowed to go on until someone who has been injured makes complaint.

Even this seems to be considered too oppressive in some quarters. Representative Crumpacker of Indiana has introduced a bill in Congress authorizing a judicial review in the Post Office Department of cases in which fraud orders are issued. The subjects of such orders are authorized to bring suit in the United States circuit courts against the postmaster, the decision of the circuit court to be final.

A few newspapers in the country have sickened over the blood money they have taken and, with no pressure of law or public opinion, have established for themselves the rule to take no financial advertisements except after the closest scrutiny, not only of the character of the advertiser, but of the character of his investment scheme as well. Unfortunately these newspapers, as a rule, content themselves with keeping their own skirts clean and do little to warn the public against their less scrupulous brethren.

Public opinion is largely formed by newspapers and it is perhaps not surprising that there is little or no public opinion against the publication of misleading financial advertisements. When a thrifty family who have saved a little money, lose it in some unsound investment, there is nothing spectacular about it, like the loss on the turn of a card or a bank failure, and those who work for the public welfare are apt to pass by such cases for something that the newspapers are talking about. If, however, there were any

way of getting before the public the vast sums of money lost every year by thrifty people, not only in fraudulent investments but in that class of investments which are not good enough to pass the scrutiny of experts and are therefore offered to the "public" through advertisements, some progress might be made towards suppressing the evil. It has been found so easy to sell so-called securities promising high interest rates through advertisements, to people who have no means of knowing good from bad, that it is common practice for promoters to buy properties just for the sake of having something on which to issue stocks and bonds to sell.

Statistics are of course unobtainable. C. R. Wooldridge of the Chicago detective force, who has probably made a closer study of this question than anyone else, estimates that one hundred and fifty millions of dollars are lost annually by the people of the United States through the fraudulent use of the mails by "safe investment" and "get-rich-quick" swindles. Of this amount he says about twenty millions are spent in newspaper advertising and an equal amount for blackmail, attorneys' fees, circulars, booklets, etc. This refers only to cases of absolute and deliberate fraud. The amount of money lost every year in investments not fraudulent but unsound, which are sold by offering high rates of interest through newspaper advertisements, is probably much greater. We need more stringent laws against the issue of such securities, but it seems to me an impressive fact that the active enforcement of present laws would save the comparatively poor people of the United States more money every year than they have lost in bank failures in the past fifty years.

If public opinion is to be aroused on this question it must be done through such journals as *THE SURVEY* which are not dependent on advertising patronage for their continued existence.

THE CITIZENS' COMMITTEE

JOSEPH D. HOLMES

CHAIRMAN OF THE "CITIZENS' COMMITTEE OF FIFTY," OF ORANGE, NEW JERSEY

Senator Colby, speaking before a church club in Newark, on the lessons of the last local elections, when the reform forces were apparently defeated, advised the formation of a sort of vigilance committee, to follow up the workings of the county officials and the sheriff's office, and to compel a stricter enforcement of the law.

The work done by voters' leagues and similar bodies, constrains the New York *Evening Post* to comment that it implies a practical breaking down of our present system of municipal government. If, it argues, all officials must be watched by volunteer organizations, then the need of care in selecting the officials is done away with, and civic responsibility has simply traversed a circle.

The fact is, however, that the most willing and efficient of city officials need, and often welcome, such a valid expression of public opinion as is afforded by the bodies referred to. The writer thinks that the work of such leagues, in general, is too diffuse, or in other words is spread out too thin; and the workers, not seeing results immediately achieved, or, their forces meeting defeat at an election, become disheartened and disorganized, and all too frequently disband and give up the struggle. It is the purpose of this paper to suggest to those interested in civic improvement, and especially to those hoping for better municipal government, that the more scientific plan of specialization of effort will often accomplish the desired result with a minimum of machinery and a consequent conservation of effort. The writer in describing an actual experiment in this line, in which he has taken some part, will be forgiven for seeming to exploit the acts of a small organization, because it is believed that the example can be followed with success in many places where reformers are few and often in despair of any hope of future better-

ment. These need some encouragement, and in the belief that it can be found this statement is presented.

The Citizens' Committee of Fifty of Orange, N. J., was organized after several conferences of the Bureau of Associated Charities on "The Liquor Problem in Orange." It was named, of course, for the famous Committee of Fifty, of which ex-President Eliot is chairman, having for its purpose the study of the same problem. Our committee was organized on the basis of a membership of the pastors of sixteen churches, with two laymen from each church. None of the clergy acts either as officer or on the executive committee. The membership has changed somewhat in the twelve years of the committee's existence, as there are no strict rules concerning it, but the basis is practically the same.

The committee concerns itself only with the liquor question.

At its inception, there were one hundred and fifteen saloons in Orange, and the license fee was only two hundred dollars. Previous to this time licenses had been granted freely by the Common Council, on petition of six property holders, and were seldom refused. An enabling act having passed the Legislature, the council divested itself of the licensing power, placing it with a Board of Excise, consisting of three members, appointed by a judge of the County Court. This body has supreme power in granting all licenses and fixing the license fee.

Realizing, after looking over the ground, that the first step toward abating the saloon evil was to reduce the number of saloons by increasing the license fee, the committee prepared petitions with that object, asking for an increase to three hundred dollars.

Orange is a manufacturing town with a population of about twenty-five thou-

sand, a large foreign element and a considerable colored colony. Prohibition was not thought of. Even as the result of local option, it has been the opinion of those best advised that "speak easies," "cellar kitchens" and the "boot-legger" would be the inevitable result of closing all the saloons. The recent legislative investigation shows that this is the case in the rural communities of southern New Jersey. On the other hand, there was no question but that drinking would be diminished, and the character of the saloon raised, on the average, by a reduction in the number. The petitions were signed by every civic body in the Oranges, for all the Oranges are concerned in the conditions in Orange proper, and these organizations claim membership in the four communities, three of which are largely residential. They included the Bureau of Associated Charities, the Y. M. C. A., the W. C. T. U., the Children's Aid and Protective Society, the New England Society, the Trustees of the Orange Memorial Hospital, and some twenty others, many amending the petition and asking for an immediate increase in the fee to five hundred dollars. The petition was also signed by every clergyman in the community, including the Roman Catholic priests and the Jewish rabbi.

At first the petition was rejected. It was opposed by the saloon-keepers, and the board claimed that there was no public demand for the change! It also questioned whether increasing the cost of the license would decrease the number of saloons, as many of them were owned by breweries which were amply able to stand the increase. Changes occurred in the personnel of the board. A tentative increase was made, then revoked, then adopted at three hundred dollars. It is now four hundred dollars and will probably be raised to five hundred.

The committee does not claim credit for these changes. Public sentiment has grown, but the committee is always there to voice public sentiment, and to keep its first demands from being forgotten. The next feature of the work is in regard to infractions of the law.

All police complaints are brought to

the attention of the board at its monthly meetings. Soon after the organization of the committee a conference was held with the executive committee of the Liquor Dealers' Association of Orange. The members were found to be a fair body of men—above the average saloon-keeper, many owning their places and some living on the premises occupied by the saloon. Such men, it was found, have a reputation that they prize and are more than anxious to keep their good name. About half of the saloon-keepers belong to this organization.

They told the committee that they pledged themselves to obey the law not to sell to minors, not to sell to habitual drunkards or disorderly persons, and also to discipline any member found guilty of such infractions. They have also volunteered to assist in the prosecution of those guilty of these offenses! Nothing was said at this time about Sunday closing. Sunday selling behind closed doors was all but universal. The police winked at it. Under the Werts law it was almost impossible to obtain legal proof, and the Sunday "growler," or pail, carried in a basket or wrapped in a newspaper, was a common sight in saloon neighborhoods.

The "bishop's law," so-called, has changed all that. A simple clause requiring all screens to be removed from doors and windows, giving a clear view from the street during the "forbidden hours" (Sundays and during elections), and a further clause forbidding the sale of liquor in back-rooms with penalty of revocation of license, stopped the Sunday business at one stroke. So well has the law worked that it is doubtful if any strong sentiment exists for its repeal even among the saloon-keepers. The Orange Liquor Dealers' Association promptly passed a resolution requiring obedience to the law and the Sunday business disappeared.

This is not the place to discuss liquor laws, the only object of this paper being to show that public opinion being actively expressed and kept before public officials, these officials are reinforced in carrying into effect the wishes of the community. In a word, they are "backed

up" by the unofficial expressions of organized good citizenship, and the burden of proof is placed upon those who wish to see a different state of affairs.

Why should not this be done in any locality by specialized committees, not vigilance committees looking for wrongdoing, but vigilant committees looking for better things in the different municipal activities?

A municipal art league to follow up all changes proposed or desired, affecting the appearance of public property; a civic sanitation society with an executive committee to attend all stated meetings of the boards of health; a society of insurance men who would take an interest in the local fire department; these are a few random suggestions, which will find echoes in the varying needs of the widely differing communities of the country. The Home and School Association, bringing parent, school and teacher together, is a new and successful form of voluntary unofficial organization. It disclaims all idea of interfering with teaching or curriculum. But are there not towns where an effective association of those interested in education might by their presence "tone up" and inspire some Board of Education, more political than educational, whose meetings now are devoted to wrangling over appointments of janitors or giving out of plumbing contracts?

A word as to machinery and organization. That of the Citizens' Committee of Fifty is of the simplest. No monthly meetings, but always some of the executive in attendance at the regular meetings of the Board of Excise; an annual meeting for the election of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and treasurer; and reports; small annual dues to cover

postage and stationery. A card catalog of all saloons, with their "record," if any; a scrap book for police complaints and news items; a printed list of saloons arranged according to the date of expiration of license,¹ with notes on the margin of any action taken or asked for. That is all. On occasions when special action regarding a license is desired a postal card notice is sent to all the membership; and also the church nearest to the neighborhood in question is requested to notify its members and request their attendance.

It is not an unusual thing for the chairman of the Board of Excise, publicly in a meeting, to request an opinion from the chairman of the committee as to what action should be taken in a case before the board. It is more unusual, but it has happened, for the president of the Liquor Dealers' Association to call publicly on the Citizens' Committee to say whether or not his association is justified in a position it has taken. This is a tribute to the fairness of the committee and to its representative quality.

The number of saloons has now been reduced to eighty-five and the reduction will continue, probably, until there is only one for each five hundred of population. There is not a disorderly house, a slot machine, or gambling device within the city limits. No dancing or musical instruments are permitted in any saloon; there are no back rooms, no resorts for women, and the saloons are orderly and law-abiding above the average. And one reason is that any infraction of the law will be followed by a prompt complaint to the Board of Excise, in the name of the "Citizens' Committee of Fifty."

¹All licenses are for one year only.

TUBERCULOSIS

PHILIP P. JACOBS, Department Editor

BUREAU OF CONSTRUCTION

The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis has again enlarged its scope, by establishing a Bureau of Information on Hospital and Sanatorium Construction in connection with the

New York office. It is intended to make this bureau a clearing-house for information on plans for all types of institutions dealing with tuberculosis. Plans and data are being collected from every sanatorium in the United States. Drawings, blueprints, photographs, models, or written information

concerning the construction of tuberculosis institutions will be furnished so far as possible to those desirous of having such facts. A pamphlet showing some of the principal types of construction is being prepared. Dr. Thomas Spees Carrington, who is in charge of this work, has had large experience in hospital building.

FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA

From Atlanta to Augusta, and from Augusta to Savannah, is the route followed by the traveling exhibition of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis in its "All-Georgia Campaign." While the exhibit was in Augusta, a house-to-house canvass was made by the women's organizations of the city, and literature was left in almost every home. More than 8,000 people visited the exhibit. After being shown at Savannah and other Georgia cities, it will be taken to Knoxville, Tenn., where the season's campaign will close.

The Western Exhibit of the national association is in Kansas.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

Under the auspices of the Swedish National League Against Tuberculosis, the International Tuberculosis Conference will hold its annual meeting in Stockholm on July 8 to 10. Among the American speakers on the program, are Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, of New York, and Dr. John C. Wise, medical director of the navy, who will be the official representative of this country.

The meetings will be held in the House of Parliament. On July 9, the city of Stockholm will give a banquet to the delegates. After three days of discussion, the members will be taken on special trains to the University of Upsala, the Gellivara mines, and to Lapland where a boating tour on the Indals river in Norrland will take them through Europe's largest lumber districts.

Two subjects of special interest to be discussed are: Care of Tuberculous Families, Especially of Healthy Children, and Tuberculosis and the Schools. Reports of the progress of the anti-tuberculosis work in various countries will be given.

NATHAN STRAUS'S GIFT

The Lakewood Hotel at Lakewood, N. J., has been given by Nathan Straus to a committee of which Marcus M. Marks is chairman, for use as a sanatorium for tuberculous children. Efforts are being made to raise a fund for the remodelling and maintenance of the institution.

"SPUNK" ARRIVES

Spunk is the suggestive name of a new monthly magazine published by the patients of the Pennsylvania State South Mountain Sanatorium, at Mont Alto, the first issue of which appeared recently. As the name suggests, and as the editorial page states, the contents of "this pleasant tonic" are meant to cheer up the patients, and to instill greater determination into their fight for life. This, the first of Pennsylvania's state



'SPUNKY' PATIENTS AT MONT ALTO.

sanatoriums, has a capacity of over 600 beds, and additions are being made constantly. It is planned to have two more institutions of this kind, one in the eastern and one in the western part of the state. Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, health commissioner of Pennsylvania, has secured from the Legislature \$2,000,000 to carry on the state campaign against tuberculosis begun in 1907.

SOLD 15,000,000 STAMPS

According to the current number of the *American Red Cross Bulletin*, the total realized from the sale of the Christmas tuberculosis stamps last year was \$138,244.51. This represents an aggregate sale of nearly 15,000,000 stamps. New York state heads the list of receipts with \$21,174.67; Pennsylvania is next with \$17,000, and Massachusetts third, with \$13,000. The money raised is all to be applied either to preventive measures or to the treatment of tuberculosis. It is expected that this year's receipts will more than double those of the last

In response to the prize competition for designs for next year's stamps, over 1,200 were submitted. The first prize of one hundred dollars was awarded to Carl Wingate of New York, the second of fifty to Augusto Bissori of South Framingham, Mass., and the third to Miss Grace D. Gerow of Jersey City.

WHEELING AROUSED

As the result of a recent exhibit held in Wheeling, W. Va., the number of tuberculosis cases reported to the Health Department during the past month was double that of the previous month. Another result of the exhibit was the organization of a local association, and the arousing of people who had never heard of the prevention or cure of tuberculosis to a realization of their danger and responsibility.

\$3,000 FOR CARNATIONS

Twenty-seven thousand carnations were sold on "carnation day" in Lynn, Mass., and over \$3,000 was realized. The flowers were used instead of the tags adopted on ordinary tag-day celebrations. They were also sold at booths in different parts of the city. The proceeds will maintain a day camp. The Salem, Mass., committee realized \$2,410 by a similar celebration.

CANVASS YIELDS \$3,100

By a systematic canvass of the population of Louisville, Ky., and by soliciting ten cents from every citizen for the Anti-Tuberculosis Association, \$3,100 was collected. Nearly 3,000 women assisted in the collection, the number being divided into squads of one hundred, each under a captain. The campaign was planned and managed by Mrs.

Louis H. Wymond. The collection will be made an annual event.

REORGANIZES HEALTH DEPARTMENT

The Health Department of Pittsburgh has been reorganized into three bureaus by Director E. R. Walters. Dr. H. K. Beatty is superintendent of the Bureau of Sanitation; Dr. J. C. McNeil head of the Bureau of Food Inspection; and Dr. J. F. Edwards, superintendent of the Bureau of Infectious Diseases under which the Tuberculosis Commission is placed.

RED CROSS BUILDS HOSPITAL

The Indiana Red Cross Society has offered to build a cottage sanatorium for any society in the state that will maintain it. Among the cities that have availed themselves of the offer are Indianapolis, Evansville, Lafayette, and South Bend.

SUCCESSFUL SEASON IN NEW YORK

The co-operative campaign of the New York State Department of Health and the State Charities Aid Association, closed for the summer months on May 24 with a large mass meeting in Kingston. During the past six months, the cities of Elmira, Binghamton, Oswego, Cohoes, Poughkeepsie, Yonkers, Middletown, Newburg, and Kingston have been thoroughly aroused. 136 meetings, with an aggregate attendance of 117,396, were held in these nine cities; 229,227 information leaflets were distributed, and eight permanent committees formed.

The tentative schedule of cities to be visited in next winter's campaign includes Syracuse, Corning, Olean, Jamestown and Dunkirk.

INDIANS VANQUISHED

According to a report of Dr. John H. Huber to State Health Commissioner Porter, of New York, bad whiskey and efforts to adopt the white man's method of living are largely responsible for tuberculosis among the Indians which is causing about half the deaths on the state reservations. Dr. Huber has finished an exhaustive examination of conditions on the seven reservations with their 5,000 Indians. He recommends that efforts be made to improve sanitary conditions and encourage better methods of living among the Indians; that the cases of tuberculosis be reported and registered; that proper medical attendance be provided; that tuberculosis camps be established, and that prompt and effective steps be taken to check the disease.

OFFERS HOSPITALS A DOLLAR A DAY

At a dinner in Philadelphia in his honor, Henry Phipps offered one dollar a day to



HOME OF A CONSUMPTIVE.

Interior of a one-room cabin in Montgomery, Alabama.

any general or special hospital in the state that would set apart beds for advanced cases of consumption. Strange to say, there has been no rush to accept Mr. Phipps's offer. Up to date, not more than five beds have been secured.

After a considerable delay, the work of clearing the site at Seventh and Lombard streets, Philadelphia, for the New Phipps Institute for the Treatment and Cure of Tuberculosis has begun. The buildings will cost \$1,250,000.

WORK IN MONTGOMERY

Through a "build the fence" campaign the Anti-Tuberculosis League of Montgomery, Ala., has realized a comfortable sum with which to carry on its work. A monthly magazine, called *The Key* is published by the society. The league has engaged a visiting nurse and is planning for a sanatorium for the Negroes of the city, the high mortality among whom has so alarmed the white people that they feel some effort must be made for self-protection. Housing conditions, as shown by the accompanying typical illustration, are very bad.

RAILROAD MUST CLEAN UP

The railway commission of Canada has issued a sweeping order, requiring every

railroad in the dominion to enforce certain rules of cleanliness in their cars and stations. The commission orders every railway company (1) to keep all its passenger stations, waiting rooms, closets, etc., clean, ventilated and regularly disinfected, and to have monthly reports from employes in charge of such work as to the state of these rooms; (2) to keep all its passenger cars clean, ventilated and in cold weather properly heated, and to have at least one employe on every train whose duty it will be to see that this is done; (3) to adopt a by-law prohibiting spitting in stations, waiting rooms, closets or other premises of the company or on the platforms of cars, except in receptacles suitable for the purpose, and providing a penalty for breach, such notices in Quebec to be in French as well as English; (4) to provide cuspidors in stations and in the smoking compartment of passenger cars and to have them cleaned at least every forty-eight hours; (5) to fumigate promptly all cars known or suspected to have carried a passenger suffering from an infectious disease; (6) to fumigate all sleeping cars regularly in service at least once in every thirty days.

A penalty not exceeding fifty dollars is provided for every infraction of the rules by the company, while every employe whose duty it is to carry out the order shall be liable to a penalty of not less than two

dollars nor more than fifteen for every failure to do so.

TEACHERS DIE OF TUBERCULOSIS

That tuberculosis is prevalent among school teachers in Indiana is the assertion made in a recent issue of the *Monthly Bulletin* issued by the Board of Health of that state. During the year 1908, 111 school teachers died in Indiana, and of this number, 21 were victims of tuberculosis, a rate of 1 in 5.3. These figures show, according to the *Bulletin*, that tuberculosis is 51 per cent more prevalent among school teachers than in other walks of life.

Dr. J. N. Hurty, secretary of the board, aided by the other members, has been urging upon the people of the state the necessity for sanitary schoolhouses, and those interested in the welfare of the teachers and the patrons of the schools have endeavored to get the Legislature to pass a law compelling their improved construction. Dr. Hurty believes that a great deal of tuberculosis originates in ill ventilated schoolhouses.

GREECE AND RUSSIA ORGANIZE

The first Greek Anti-Tuberculosis Congress was held in May at Athens under the patronage of the crown prince of Greece.

At a conference held in Moscow April 2 to 4, initial steps were taken for the organization of a Russian League Against Tuberculosis. The league must receive the sanction of the government before organizing.

DAY CAMPS POPULAR

Day and night camps for the summer months are being opened in many cities, most of them in the East, among which are, Buffalo, Rochester, Poughkeepsie, Albany, Schenectady, New York, Boston, Somerville, Lynn, Lowell, Salem, Holyoke, Springfield, Mass.; Brattleboro, Vt.; Portland, Me.; Providence, Newark, Plainfield, N. J., and Camden, N. J. The sale of Red Cross Christmas stamps provided the necessary funds.

NOTES FROM THE FIELD

Dr. J. G. Adami of McGill University, Montreal, has been elected president of the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The first biennial report of the Connecticut State Board of Health for the period ending September 30, 1908, says that during the past twenty years the mortality from

tuberculosis has decreased about twenty-five per cent, on account of better modes of living and a more general knowledge of the infectious character of the disease.

The Maryland State Sanatorium at Sabillasville was dedicated on May 15 before a distinguished company of physicians and laymen.

Two teachers for consumptive children are provided by the New York City Board of Education, one at the Municipal Day Camp at Bellevue Hospital, and the other in the Red Cross Day Camp at the Vanderbilt Clinic.

During the last three months nearly 25,000 people in twelve cities of Wisconsin have attended the exhibit prepared by the Department of Bacteriology of the University of Wisconsin, and sent out by the university extension division of the university in co-operation with the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association.

The Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis has prepared an exhibit primarily for use in stores, factories, settlements, and schools. It will be shown in all the large manufacturing establishments.

The Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Association has received a gift of a shack for its new sanatorium from the Jewish citizens of Wilmington.

The exhibit of the New Jersey Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis will be displayed on the board walk at Ocean Grove and Asbury Park during July and August.

A special dispensary for Negroes will be opened in Norfolk, Va., in July, under the direction of the Health Department.

"Smiling Joe," whose photograph, showing him strapped to a frame, has been published all over the country, in connection with the Sea Breeze Hospital of Coney Island, has been discharged as cured of tuberculosis of the spine, after four years at the hospital.

The supervisors of Albany county, N. Y., have ordered the county superintendent of the poor to place all indigent consumptives in institutions, either private or public, the county to pay for them at the rate of one dollar a day.

The recent International Tuberculosis Exhibit shown for a month in Philadelphia cost \$19,474.

The annual meeting of the New Jersey Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis was held on May 20. An encouraging report of progress in the state was given.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN R. COMMONS, Department Editor

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

A HARD FIGHT

The Illinois ten-hour bill for women has passed both houses of the Legislature and

is now before Governor Deneen for his signature. The bill was supported originally as an eight-hour measure by the Women's Trade Union League, and its attorney, Har-

old Ickes. It was presented by Waitresses' Union, Local 484, Chicago, and introduced by Senator Jones, leader of the senate. The fight was led by the president of the Waitresses' Union, Miss Anna Willard, assisted by many trades-union girls, among whom were Miss Elizabeth Maloney, Miss Agnes Nestor of the Glove Workers' Union, and Louise Holly of the Laundry Workers. Miss Jane Addams, Miss Mary McDowell and Mrs. Raymond Robins worked continuously for the passage of the bill.

The Manufacturers' Association fought the bill from the start. Petitions against the eight-hour bill were circulated in certain factories and mills and the girls were "asked" to sign these, after being told they would lose money if the bill passed. Other girls were asked to go to Springfield to appear against the bill.

The scenes during the days of the final passage were dramatic. At eleven o'clock Friday night, May 28, an amendment was introduced to include in the bill mercantile establishments and to put the number of hours back to eight. This trick was easily seen through and on a motion to table the amendment a roar of "ayes" went up. At a call for the "noes" only about six men answered.

On the following Saturday morning members of the House received telegrams signed by manufacturers, protesting against the ten-hour bill. The final reading took place Saturday after six o'clock and was carried by eighty-five votes.

THE GIRLS' BILL

The fight has been made almost entirely by the working girls themselves. It was undertaken in the face of opposition from lawyers, economists and social workers. For nine weeks the girls kept close to Springfield, following and pushing every detail of procedure. They have proven themselves capable, and dignified, and have won the respect of legislators and everyone about the capitol. Contributions to the cause have been given by other women's unions, and by individual working-girls. Many non-union girls became so interested that they contributed not only to the support of the bill but even sent money to the striking hat trimmers of New York. The bill was known by every one as "the girls' bill." After the second reading had been carried the legislators shook hands with each other, calling out—"The girls have won."

The law will undoubtedly be carried to the courts. In the face of recent decisions, notably the case of *Curt Miller vs. State of Oregon*, sustaining the ten-hour law for women in Oregon, the women of Illinois should have hope of saving the law.

IRENE OSGOOD.

EIGHT HOUR BILL VETOED

A bill restricting the hours of labor upon public works to eight in one day was this

spring introduced into the Massachusetts Legislature and passed by both houses. On May 9 this bill was vetoed by Governor Draper, and his veto has been sustained.

In 1907 a bill was passed in Massachusetts, providing that no employe on public works shall be "requested or required" to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day. The defeated bill of this year provides that no such employe shall be "required or permitted" to work more than eight hours.

The governor holds that this is "a most drastic change" and "an unwarrantable interference with the right of the workingman to work more than eight hours in a day if he so desires." The governor also feels that the fine of \$1,000 or imprisonment for six months is "altogether too drastic." He believes "that the effect of this law would be to drive much business now done in the commonwealth of Massachusetts to other states" and that it would be "class legislation of the worst kind." These are all familiar objections, having been raised for many decades past. It is all the more strange since the federal eight hour law passed in 1892 and held to be constitutional contains provisions identical in all important respects, with the vetoed Massachusetts bill. And at least seven out of twenty-four states have in their eight-hour laws the wording "require or permit." Oklahoma has just passed such a law; California, Idaho, and Wyoming provide for eight hours in their constitutions; New York in 1905 amended its constitution to permit the state to regulate hours on public works; four states have the maximum fine of \$1,000. Kansas has both of these provisions and her law has been held constitutional in the federal case of *Atkin vs. Kansas*. Certainly if the state can regulate hours in private industries as was established by the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Holden vs. Hardy*, it ought to be able to say what shall constitute a day's work for its own employes with itself as employer. The Supreme Court declared in the case of *Atkin vs. Kansas*: "It belongs to the state, as guardian and trustee for the people, and having control of its affairs, to prescribe the conditions upon which it will permit work to be done on its behalf or in behalf of its municipalities."

PRIMA FACIE EVIDENCE

The clause making the fact that an employe is working more than eight hours a day, *prima facie* evidence of guilt appears to the governor "to be absolutely unjust and improper if not entirely unconstitutional. This would make the defendant in a case under this act adjudged *prima facie* guilty before trial and he would be compelled to prove his innocence rather than compel the complainant to prove him guilty. This to my mind is an unwarranted change in the common law." While this is a new feature

in eight hour laws the Supreme Court of Massachusetts on this point said in the case of *Commonwealth vs. Williams*, that "it is no new thing in the history or administration of the law that peculiar and artificial force is given or attributed to particular facts or series of facts as means and instruments of legal proof." Such a statute only prescribes "what legal effect shall be given to a particular species of evidence. . . . This neither conclusively determines the guilt or innocence of the party who is accused, nor withdraws from the jury the right and duty of passing upon and determining the issue to be tried." The device of possession to establish a *prima facie* case in common law has long been embodied in Massachusetts jurisprudence and held constitutional. The principle is stated in several Massachusetts statutes, involving cases concerning the delivery of liquor, the possession of a license to sell liquor, the altering of marks on logs set up in streams, the possession of lottery tickets, the possession of horses with docked tails, the possession of mutilated short length lobsters, the failure of a proprietor of a factory to produce a schooling certificate of a minor working for him, etc.

The present eight-hour law in Massachusetts has been almost entirely useless. Workmen who do not "volunteer" to work more than eight hours soon find themselves looking elsewhere for a job. The eight-hour principle had already been accepted by the state and the new bill was intended to make the law already on the statute books effective.

IRENE OSGOOD.

UNEMPLOYMENT BILL DEFEATED

The British Labor Party presented its unemployed workmen's bill to Parliament. It represented the final work of the Labor Party but it was defeated, although half the Commons voted for it.

The plan of the Labor Party was to make the council of every county and county borough the local unemployment authority. The council was to appoint an unemployment committee, a majority of which including the chairman were to be members of the council; one-fifth of the committee to consist of trade-union representatives. Besides these committees there was to be a central unemployment committee consisting of persons representative of the Board of Agriculture, the Board of Trade, the Board of Education and the Local Government Board, and the trade unions, with a secretary appointed by the Local Government Board.

To the central unemployment committee was given authority, among other things, to frame schemes for the provision of work for unemployed persons; to establish and maintain forest schools and training farms for occupations connected with the land; to establish reformatory colonies for persons unemployed owing to deliberate and habitual disinclination to work.

The duty of the local committees was to draw up schemes for providing suitable work for the registered unemployed persons of their area. They were to prepare a scheme of maintenance for those for whom work could not be found, including removal to another place, in accordance with the regulations issued by the central unemployment committee. The expenses incurred by the unemployment committee were to be raised out of the county taxes.

When the number of unemployed persons in a county exceeded four per cent of the wage earners, the county would be deemed to suffer from exceptional unemployment. The president of the Local Government Board must then sanction a scheme providing work for the excess of unemployed over four per cent, for a determined period, with moneys provided by Parliament. Or the president of the Local Government Board may provide work for all persons within the area who are registered as unemployed during the period of exceptional unemployment on works of national utility. Failing the provision of work, in case of exceptional unemployment, the president of the Local Government Board must provide maintenance for such persons and their dependents.

The bill further provided that in no case must an unemployment committee supply workmen to an employer during times of trades disputes in which the employer is involved. Also, the provision of work or assistance or maintenance was not to disentitle a recipient to be registered or to vote as a parliamentary, county or parochial elector, or as a burgess.

WILLIAM LEISERSON.

MEASURES FOR UNEMPLOYMENT

Although the Labor Party's bill was refused by the Commons, the subject of unemployment will not be ignored. In discussing his splendidly courageous budget, Lloyd-George said: "It is not part of the function of a government to create work, but it is an essential part of its business to see that the people are equipped to make the best of their own country, and if necessary are helped to make the best of their own country." The government offers as its first step a series of labor exchanges.¹ A bill was introduced on May 20 to establish about 220 labor exchanges which are provided for in the budget of Lloyd-George. They are to cost \$1,000,000 yearly the first ten years and \$750,000 thereafter. The exchanges will be provided with advisory committees of employers and employees.

The government plans to go still further and at the next session of Parliament an industrial insurance scheme will be introduced. The plan is modelled after the German insurance law and involves compulsory contributions from employers and em-

¹ Recommended in the minority report of the Poor Law Commission and by W. H. Beveridge in his recent book, *The Problem of Unemployment*.

ployes in addition to state grants. Insurance books and stamps will be used which the worker when unemployed may take to the nearest labor exchange where either work or an allowance will be given him.

BOSTON AND MAINE PENSIONS

Governor Draper signed on May 24 the Boston and Maine pension bill which is an important contribution in the working out of an American old age pension system.

(A) This bill was enacted upon petition of the employes. It had throughout the sympathetic co-operation of the railroad officials, which was rather an extraordinary example of enlightened action on the part of a great corporation.

The pensions to be provided (so far as they relate to future services) are supplied by equal contributions from employer and employes, subject only to the clause that the employer will make up any deficiency so that the minimum annual payment shall be not less than \$200. To meet the hardships incident to those already advanced in years and service, the company undertakes to make an additional contribution.

(B) With a view to encouraging a reasonably large old age income, provision is made by which regular pensions may be supplemented by annuities to be purchased by the men voluntarily through current contributions from income.

(C) The establishment of the system depends upon its being adopted by vote of both the railroad and the employes, a vote of two-thirds of the employes voting thereon being required for its adoption. The rules governing the system are to be made by the Board of Trustees in which the railroad and the employes have equal representation.

(D) A great defect in systems established by railroads and other large corporations has been that they create a body of dependents, and in many instances that doubtless was the main purpose. Under such systems the pension, not being a right, proves often to have been delusive, and perhaps more frequently is used to limit the freedom of the worker. Under the Boston and Maine bill the employe acquires a legal right to the pension. If he ceases to be an employe of the company, he loses the pension proper, but he has paid to him an amount equal at least to the amount of his contributions.

This feature is entirely new in pension legislation. Under it the system, when established by vote, becomes obligatory upon all persons thereafter entering the employ of the road, and upon all in its employ at the time the system was established, unless such person both voted against the adoption of the system, and recorded his objections within three months. By virtue of this provision it is expected that the system will become operative at its establishment upon practically all the 27,000 employes of the

Boston and Maine system, and that contributions to the fund will become practically automatic through deductions from wages. By this means obligatory contributions will be secured by democratic methods.

The pension funds are exempt from taxation, and the right to the pension is made an inalienable right. This is but an application of a broader purpose that underlies the whole agitation for wage-earners' insurance. To make free citizens, we must have men financially independent, and such independence is possible only through a comprehensive system of insurance against the contingencies of sickness, accident, old age or premature death. Independence in fact, therefore, involves protection against loss of the bare means of subsistence either through legal processes or voluntary act, just as much as loss of liberty through selling oneself into servitude.

The pension system is placed under the same state supervision as the ordinary insurance or savings bank insurance and pensions system. In the case of this railroad, provision is made for a separate savings institution under government supervision, carefully guarded even to the point of having the insurance commissioner and the state actuary join in the supervision with a view to securing the greatest possible safety.

(E) This act is an important step since it opens the way for an extension of the co-operative system to cover accident insurance and invalidity insurance. Out of it may also develop a general law under which other public service and private corporations may put into operation a co-operative old age pension system.

LOUIS D. BRANDEIS.

LABOR BUREAU DISAPPEARS

The first labor bureau in the world was the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor established in 1869. Its duties were "to collect, assort, systematize and present in annual reports to the Legislature . . . statistical details relating to all departments of labor in the commonwealth especially in its relation to the commercial, industrial, social, educational, and sanitary conditions of the laboring classes and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industry of the commonwealth." By a bill passed at this session of the Massachusetts Legislature the word "labor" is stricken from the original title of the bureau and it now becomes a Bureau of Statistics. The duties of the bureau now are "to collect, assort, arrange and publish statistical information relative to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the commonwealth, the productive industries of the commonwealth and the financial affairs of the cities and towns." The bureau shall also maintain free employment offices and take the decennial census of the state.

The activities of the bureau during the past generation have been gradually directed away from the lines upon which the bureau was originally founded. The recent change in title is really a change in name, merely, rather than an indication of recent change in policy.

RHODE ISLAND LEGISLATION

Rhode Island has the distinction of passing but one labor measure at this year's session. That one is a very good ten-hour law for women and for children under sixteen.

A bill, which was introduced but lost, prohibited among other things, the employment of children under fourteen in factory, manufacturing, or business establishments, and forbade the employment of children under sixteen between the hours of seven at night and six the following morning. The bill was not reported out of the special legislation committee until the last day of the session, which proved a very effective way of killing it. It was supported by the Federation of Women's Clubs and called forth much discussion.

Another labor bill which failed to pass was one creating an office of commissioner of labor and statistics with the intention of merging the duties of factory inspectors

and labor bureau officials. This bill was referred to the judiciary committee out of which it was never reported.

Two bills were introduced relating to trade disputes. One prohibited deception and misrepresentation by false advertisements and pretenses in securing employees. Failure to state in an advertisement the existence of a strike, lockout, or any labor trouble is deemed misrepresentation. A workman engaging in work under such false pretenses shall have right of action for recovery of damages sustained. The other bill relating to trade disputes was designed to prevent the coercion of persons to join a union as a condition of employment; on the other hand employees are not to be discharged or to be threatened with dismissal for membership in a labor organization, or for refusal to join in or to continue to belong to such organization. Neither bill succeeded in getting out of the special legislative committee.

Three other bills practically complete the labor legislation asked for at the last session. These were greater safety in building construction, protection to the lives of the traveling public and of railway employees, and the prevention of intimidation of employees in voting. This last bill was modelled very closely after the New York law but along with the others it did not get out of the special committee.



SHORE FRONT AT GRAND RAPIDS.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Department Editor

GRAND RAPIDS'S ACTIVE BOARD

It is some measure of the activity of the municipal affairs committee of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade to know that every month a half dozen printed pages, containing as much matter as a like number of pages in *THE SURVEY*, are necessary merely to summarize its activities of the last thirty

days. These monthly reports, which are illustrated, are interesting reading, and suggestive for other communities. This department could be well filled with extracts from the last three numbers; but that would not be fair to other places.

The illustration with which the department opens is taken from one of the reports. It is interesting from many points

of view. It shows the better type of municipal construction now beginning to appear in our cities, for that bridge is worthy of Europe. It shows, too, a typical American shore front, and the bridge and riverbank taken together—the new and the old, as they are—offer a significant contrast. Finally, it is interesting because the improvement of this riverbank, which is so typical, has been made the subject of two reports. A sub-committee recommends that, as future buildings erected here are almost sure to be built flush with the flood wall, there be requirement that their river façades be treated architecturally, just as if they fronted on an important business thoroughfare. In this way, at very little additional cost, this important feature of the city can be made impressive and handsome. Meanwhile, the buildings now flush with the wall can be made to look a little less boxlike by slight alteration, and the river front premises of those, set back from the wall, can be cleaned up and planted. The other report, made by the park superintendent, notes that as only two buildings are now flush with the new dock line, an opportunity exists for a promenade. Where the walk passes the two buildings mentioned, it can be hung on brackets fastened to the flood wall. Elsewhere it can run the whole way back of the wall and be made attractive with planting. So are better ideals coming into our urban life.

SUGGESTIONS FROM GRAND RAPIDS

There are one hundred and forty members of the municipal affairs committee, who are divided into eight sub-committees: The more beautiful city committee, the better governed city committee, the social welfare committee, the healthier city committee, the public improvements committee, the cleaner city committee, the town hall committee, and the city's neighbors committee.

Each of the sub-committees is further divided into special committees. It is clear that there is the machinery for very systematic work. A particularly interesting report is that of the more beautiful city committee's special committee on arbor day. Instead of distributing trees this year, it gave out 20,000 spireas. Ten plants were given to each applying charitable institution in the city, and to each applying school, church, and town hall in the surrounding country. The remainder were sold at five cents each to factory employees and to children in the public and parochial schools. The applications exceeded by several hundred the committee's supply of plants. These beautiful shrubs, in themselves and in the further planting they will encourage, are going to make no little difference in the aspect of Grand Rapids. In this connection, the following quotation is interesting:

"The municipal affairs committee would call your attention to the fact that an ap-

preciation of the advantage of making Grand Rapids a better place to work in and to live in is spreading rapidly, as is evidenced by the action of two factories, the Powers & Walker Casket Co. and the York Co. in announcing their intention of beautifying their premises; by the action of the Wolverine Brass Co. in purchasing a plot of ground for the use of its employees during the noon hour, and by the action of the Coit estate in giving to the city a nine-acre park in the Black Hills district."

NATURE STUDY IN WHITECHAPEL

School Gardening and Nature Study in English Schools, is the title of a pamphlet report issued during the winter by the Office of Experiment Stations of the Department of Agriculture. The author is Miss Susan B. Sipe, who made the study while abroad. Most interesting is her account of nature study in—Whitechapel, London! She describes one of the new schools in the district. It is a well-built three-story structure, with absolutely no ground around it. The playground is on the roof, and the head mistress is persuading the children to beautify this ground, and conduct gardening operations on it. As the play space must be retained, permission was obtained from the County Council to expend twenty shillings for butter tubs and boxes, in which the garden could be begun. Later the council placed properly constructed troughs around the roof, and provided 200 bushels of soil to fill them. One of the children, Annie Lazarus, planned the garden; and from her plan a group of children, directed by one of the teachers, made a model in wood and cardboard of what the garden should be in 1910. Each pupil has assigned to her a space about a foot square in the box-garden, but even that little "is more than she has at home." When Miss Sipe visited the roof, "the Virginia creeper in the butter tubs was beginning to climb the protecting wall of the playground and the marigolds in the boxes were blooming." A turret room had a table for experimental work in plant life. Some acorns had become oak trees ten or twelve inches high. On the window sills of the building were "some interesting though pathetic attempts of these East Side children to grow plants at home." She tells too of a country-in-town exhibition held in the Whitechapel Art Gallery during two summer weeks. Collections of wild flowers were exhibited by two country schools; paintings of wild flowers and nature studies by many of the schools in London; and a model backyard and garden showing what might be done at little expense in an ordinary London backyard. And Miss Sipe quotes, from the booklet issued in the interest of the exhibit: "To be blind and deaf to nature is to be, in the current phrase, 'defective.' . . . There is no sadder sight in the world than to see a

crowd of town-bred men and women wandering forlornly through beautiful scenery searching for the nearest public house. . . . It is mockery to tell poor, hard-worked people that they should go away to see flowers and green fields. They cannot. The only thing is to bring the flowers and green fields to them, in the form of parks, gardens, or even window boxes."

PHILADELPHIA'S UP-TO-DATE MAYOR

The second annual message of Mayor Reyburn of Philadelphia which, with the annual reports of the directors of departments, has been issued in a handsome and illustrated pamphlet, is a remarkable and interesting document. Mayor Reyburn is distinctly a city-beautiful mayor. In that respect he ranks with the mayors of Denver, Detroit, Oakland, and in large degree New York. It is reassuring to the advocates of greater city beauty to find such encouragement in high places where there is the power to bring things to pass. It is noteworthy, too, that of these city-beautiful mayors, two are new men, elected on that platform, and two others—the mayors of Denver and Oakland—have been returned to office time and time again on it. A few extracts from Mayor Reyburn's message will indicate his attitude and put heart into other municipalities. He says of the Fairmount Park Parkway: "There has never occurred in this country, or possibly in Europe, so extraordinary an opportunity. A great city hall is separated by barely a mile of fairly level, and cheaply developed property from a great rock, an 'Acropolis' available for a municipal museum, at the gateway of a famous park belonging to the city. The nucleus of a collection is waiting to be put in this museum. It would seem an ideal condition." Urging that the parkway must be "a great and beautiful avenue," with the character of its improvements controlled, he gives concretely his ideas for it—and most splendid and yet practical they are. The agitation over the parkway, he notes, has "brought forth many plans for the beautification and improvement of the city. All the larger municipalities of America are striving to raise the standard of municipal beauty. To develop a highway here and there, to adopt this and that suggestion, no matter how good it may be, will ultimately lead to confusion and the resultant re-doing of what has been done. The process of civic development is of greater importance potentially than the administration of what the city has already acquired. . . . I have devoted much of my thought to the city's future and to the present necessity of preparing for that future. A comprehensive, broad, and general plan of civic development, capable of elasticity to meet the varying conditions which may confront successive administrations, should be developed." He then quotes with approval a long and most interesting argu-

ment by Chief Webster of the Bureau of Surveys in behalf of a comprehensive plan for the city—a plan that shall provide for future through-highways, for parks and playgrounds and parkways, and for "embankments and broad avenues for commercial and ornamental purposes" on the river banks. Then the mayor urges new diagonal thoroughfares, not only in the outlying sections, but penetrating to the very heart of the city to relieve the growing congestion there. And all this comes, not from irresponsible students and theorists, but from the head of the Bureau of Surveys of one of the greatest of our cities and from the mayor of that city!

GIFTS OF A LOYAL SON

Two months ago, in recording the death of Gen. William J. Palmer, the extraordinary extent of his gifts to Colorado Springs was noted. In the death of Henry H. Rogers, Fairhaven, Mass., has lost such another town benefactor. Fairhaven was Mr. Rogers's birthplace, and after he had become rich and successful in the city it remained his summer home. It has been estimated that his gifts to the town cost him more than three million dollars. They included a school house, a town hall, a library, and a group of church buildings. The big Masonic Hall was built by him, and it is said that he spent more than \$100,000 of his own money on the town's streets and roads—and not only that, but, for some time, he was the town's superintendent of streets, drawing for his time the customary small salary. The sewer and water works systems were also, says the Boston *Transcript*, built largely through his contributions, and he sent the school teachers on summer vacations. He built a park and a hotel. His plans were eminently practical, and yet they were executed with a splendid generosity that transformed each one into a noble gift, and so raised it above the plane of bare utility that in looking at it one almost forgot its great practical usefulness.

A GOOD INVESTMENT

This department has received a stock certificate, entitling the owner to one share in "the future happiness of the citizens of Denison." The certificate, which is non-transferable, bears the great seal of the city, and it is duly signed by the mayor and the city secretary. It purports to have been issued in consideration of its owner's "personal efforts in maintaining, beautifying and protecting the parks of said city, and such ownership entitles said holder to resort to said parks, and to enjoy to the fullest extent all the rights and privileges pertaining thereto." There comes with the certificate, a letter which tells about it. The letter says:

"Denison, Texas, on May 19, put into operation a unique park development and main-

tenance plan. The idea, started by A. L. Jonz, one of the park commissioners, and fostered by the Denison Board of Trade, was to organize the boys of Denison into a Junior Park Association. As Denison is a city of about 20,000 inhabitants and has a large industrial population, it can readily be seen that there are a large number of boys in the city and that they are of the class which it is desirable to reach. The boys took to the plan with a vim which surprised even the originators. The Junior Park Association was the talk of every boy in town. On the evening of May 19 over 1,200 boys gathered at the band stand in the center of Forest Park, which is a plot of about four acres in the heart of the city. Seats were provided for the boys, but the older people and the girls were fenced off. The boys were the guests of honor. Each of the wards had a division, and the boys were grouped about its banner in convention style. The entire program was arranged to appeal to a boy's nature. The Board of Trade band donated its services for the occasion. Two male quartettes were on the program. The speeches were couched in the language of boydom. The boys were told by the mayor and city commissioners that the people reposed faith in them and thought of them as men of the future; and that the park was being improved to be their playground. The only thing asked of

the boys was to see that no one else destroyed any of the improvements in the park, it being broadly implied that of course no boy present would do anything of the kind. Park Commissioner Jonz then asked every boy who thought the Junior Park Association a good thing to speak up; and of course there was not a dissenting voice. One of the boys moved that the body organize, and that two boys be appointed from each of the city schools to meet upon call with the Park Commission. The representatives were named by another boy, and the proposition was carried with a whoop. The certificates of stock were then passed around, and refreshments were served."

It is proposed, as the next step, the letter further explains, "that the boys of the Junior Park Association, meeting at their schools, shall march to the Board of Trade office, where they will be joined by the park officials. Then all are to march to Munson Park and devote a day to clearing out underbrush and weeds, and putting the park generally into presentable shape—this tract being a new park recently presented to the city. Boys up to a certain age will be asked to bring one kind of implement, and those of another age another kind. A lunch will be served at noon, and time off will be allowed for a series of competitive games."

THE TREND OF THINGS



CAMP UNITY.

Twenty-two miles on a wooded bluff, overlooking Lake Independence, Minn., lies Camp Unity, composed of boys and girls of North Minneapolis, who have been enrolled in classes at Unity Settlement House.

These entries from last summer's "log book" with accompanying "pitchers" show how summer camps appeal to city youngsters:

"On the morning of August 16 we were awakened by the canon. We had a fine day. In the morning we cleaned out our tents ate breakfast and then went to church.

"On the way back we picked grapes, which were turning purple. We went for a walk

in the woods and picked goose berries and chocke cherries. We walked round the woods and had our pitchers taken. One was on the root of a big tree, one straddled a tree and one sitting on a tree. We walked by the edge of the lake on our bare feet and had our pitcher taken again. We then came home and went swimming. At night we had a corn roast. We wish we could set the clock slow or miss the train to stay longer but we can't.

MYRTLE JONES."

"As usual, the cannon was fired off at 6:30 and at 6:45 the roll was called; and

then we ate breakfast. After the work was done, we took boats until 10, when the captain and all of us saw a bird which could not be distinguished. After a hard look thru a bird book the name of the bird was a Red-eyed Vireo. At 11 we went swimming; at 12 the roll was called and then we ate dinner. We have to call things by their right names, punk, grease, cow juice, sinkers, muslem, or we can't have anything to eat. At 1:20 we went to Maple Plain and returned at 5 to have a nice long swim. I have been here three days and think this is the finest place a boy ever went to. Up to to-day No. 2 has had the Pennant for being clean, and No. 4 once. We had a few visitors. After supper we played 'Run Sheep, Run,' and 'Pull-away.' Then the camp fire was lighted and a story or riddle was contributed by each one. Then we sung songs and then a marsh mellow toast. Two people swam across the lake to-day. Before we knew it we had to go to bed. Wish I could stay a month.

JOE HANDLE."

* * *

The Bureau of Municipal Research, New York, has drawn up a pretty stiff list of qualifications for the next mayor of the city.

"Specific things to be avoided, specific conditions to be corrected, specific forward steps to be taken, specific opportunities to be realized, suggest that New York's next mayor, if perchance an after-dinner speaker, should also be an after-breakfast worker. Whether learned or not, he should be capable of learning. If not a lawyer, he should be competent to enforce law. If not a banker, he should be competent to understand financial problems and to realize the supreme importance of city credit that will sell long term bonds at a premium and at as low a rate of interest as any American municipality. If not a business man, he should be capable of heading a business office and of applying business tests to himself, to his co-workers and to suggestions for expansion or retrenchment. However large his capacities, he should be big enough to see the limitation of his own eyes and hands, and able to select efficient subordinates to supplement and aid his executive capacity. If 'six feet tall and handsome' he should be conscious that he will be confronted for fourteen hundred and forty days not by a camera, an audience or an interviewer—not by one or two so-called 'issues' inviting spectacular action—but by innumerable definite questions requiring knowledge, decision and effective action as well as integrity."

The pamphlet sent out by the bureau outlines twenty-three things that the next mayor must do and states forty-nine conditions that demand immediate relief. The coming executive will certainly have his hands full in carrying out this complete and farseeing program and a man of "knowledge, decision and effective action" such as the bureau suggests is the man for the place.

* * *

The proceedings of the White House Con-



GETTING THEIR "PITCHERS" TOOK.

ference on the Care of Dependent Children have been printed in quantity by the government and designated as Senate Document 721. Senator Owen and Senator LaFollette have been chiefly instrumental in securing for the secretary, James E. West, the use of the government printing office. Copies may be obtained by those interested from their senator or from Mr. West, 1,343 Clifton street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

* * *

The fourth number of Richard Henry Edwards's series¹ (see *Charities and The Commons*, October 17, 1908), *Studies in American Social Conditions*, has just come from the press. This number deals with The Labor Problem and is perhaps the most carefully thought out of any of the four which have appeared. The distinctive value of this series is the well planned bibliography and the fair-minded, concise statement of the problem accompanying it. It is intended for the use of the layman and is gotten up with a view to his needs. Settlement clubs, civic betterment leagues, men's clubs, Y. M. C. A. classes and debating societies will find in the series usable and valuable material.

For the annotated bibliography of thirty pages a few well-chosen books are selected, which anyone, without the convenience of a large library, can easily secure. Each book is analyzed according to the different topics, and the subject is taken up under two main divisions: first, the problem and second,

¹Studies in American Social Conditions, No. 4, The Labor Problem, Richard Henry Edwards, editor, Madison, Wis., ten cents each, postage two cents, for all except The Labor Problem, which is twenty cents postpaid. The entire series including a reprint of Mr. Edwards's article in *Charities and The Commons*, is sold at \$1.15 postpaid.

the proposed solutions. Under the first head are the following topics with more detailed sub-topics: The Distinctive Developments of American Industry, American Labor under Aggravated Conditions, The Phases of Industrial Warfare, The Employers' Point of View, The Employees' Point of View, The Condition of Women's Labor and Child Labor. Under the proposed solutions the following forms of effort are considered; Solutions Proposed by the Employers and by the Employees, Joint Agreements, Conciliation and Arbitration, Idealistic Proposals and Legislative Control.

In the statement of the problem Mr. Edwards presents an outline of the factors which have brought about our industrial troubles. He traces the growth and development of the labor problem until its appearance as the great question of the day. He discusses the problems accompanying and arising out of the industrial situation and concludes that "The labor problem admits of no simple solution. It is apparent that no single form of effort is applicable to the wide variety of difficulties involved. The ideal is a far cry. Its achievement will be a long drawn struggle. Accurate justice, industrial democracy, and perfect adjustments will only be approached by many and varied efforts, some coercive and some generous. The human touch and a fair consideration by employers and employees, each for the interests of the other, are perhaps the most pressing needs."

Of the usefulness of this series Professors J. R. Commons, Jeremiah Jenks, and Edward A. Ross have spoken in the highest terms. The earlier numbers contain a statement and bibliography on The Liquor Problem, The Negro Problem, and Immigration. Six other problems will be treated in the following order,—Poverty, Excessive and Concentrated Wealth, Municipal Government, The Children of the Cities, The Increase of Crime and the Administration of Criminal Justice, and the Treatment of the Criminal.

* * *

The Committee on Pollution of the Waters of New York of the Merchants' Association, has issued a supplementary report with this legend on the cover:—

"The House-fly at the Bar

Indictment

Guilty or not *Guilty*

Evidence:—in the Matter of the People Against

The Common House-fly."

It will be remembered that a great deal of interest was excited by the publication in December of 1907 of the report of the Merchants' Association on the pollution of New York harbor. This report which was written by Dr. Daniel D. Jackson, held that raw sewage discharged into large or small bodies of water furnishes feeding ground for flies from which they gather and spread the germs of typhoid fever and other intestinal diseases. The committee has been in corre-

spondence with health officers throughout the country, and publishes the results of local investigations, and opinions. No attempt at a digest of this testimony is offered in the present memorandum, but accompanying it is Dr. Jackson's address on the Transmission of Disease by Flies, presented before the civic conventions in Pittsburgh last fall, together with contributions by Dr. L. O. Howard, United States Department of Agriculture, Dr. Alice Hamilton of Chicago, and Dr. John B. Huber; also a bibliography, types of fly posters, and schemes of fly fighting in various sections of the country.

* * *

New interest in hospital economies should result from a plan for a central purchasing agency for New York city hospitals presented before a meeting of the Hospital Conference at the Academy of Medicine, by W. V. S. Thorne, treasurer of the Presbyterian Hospital,—which has brought it out as a pamphlet for free distribution. The subject is not new, but Mr. Thorne speaks with unusual technical authority from his long experience in general charge of the purchasing department of the Union and Southern Pacific railroads. Thus from a new and perhaps unexpected angle we have evidence of the widening interest in intelligent economy, in co-operative buying and in federated charity.

Mr. Thorne believes that from sixty to eighty per cent of hospital supplies could be standardized. Purchasing through a central agency would be economical because of low prices from quantity, from savings in commissions and expenses of shipping and handling, from the prestige and advertising value to the manufacturer thus able to state that he supplied the New York hospitals, and from the savings effected by an experienced buyer. A committee on standards could not only systematize and simplify the work, but decrease the cost for the best goods. Mr. Thorne goes into detail in giving outlines of order blanks, contracts, continuing orders and other devices for economy. A good many supplies, he believes, as now purchased are unnecessary, as for instance, some varieties of printed forms. A bureau of inspection and tests would complete the circle of the agency. He shows that forty-five hospitals in Greater New York spent about \$4,521,000 last year for current expenses of which amount \$2,689,000, or about sixty per cent, was for supplies only. If only sixty per cent of this amount, or \$1,613,000 worth of supplies,—were purchased through a central agency at an average saving of only ten per cent, the gross saving would amount to \$161,000 for the year, or more than six times \$24,000, his estimate of the cost of maintaining the central agency. The saving would thus be \$137,000 in current expenses alone, which is one and one-half times the total average amount collected each year by the Hospital Saturday and Sunday Association.

COMMUNICATIONS

FROM A PHILADELPHIA MOTHER

TO THE EDITOR:

I want to thank you for calling "sliding boards" to my attention. You see I always read *THE SURVEY* through from front cover to last advertisement, and the sliding-board in one of the advertisements a few weeks ago attracted my special attention. At first I only thought what a nice thing it was to have in a playground in a congested district. But then I began to wonder why, if it was good for the tenement children, it wouldn't be a good thing for my three-year-old boy to have. So I went and looked at it, but it cost ten dollars, and that seemed extravagant for a mere plaything, and I went home without it. Then I remembered the "new view" of play, that it is just as much a part of a rational education as school teaching, and I knew we would think nothing of spending ten dollars for something the boy might need in school five years from now, so, clutching this idea firmly, I ordered the sliding-board, and from this time on I shall try to give my son all the advantages which the most fortunate overcrowded children have.

CONSTANT READER.

CLEAN THE AUGEAN STABLE

TO THE EDITOR:—

I suppose, of course, that you are "to point the way" to nobler ideals of thinking, doing, living. And I have often wondered if you have ever given serious thought to the need of work—of hard, persistent and well directed effort, among those who are too often your most liberal "givers to the cause"? For instance, I have known men to give liberally to the work of reclaiming fallen women, yet these same men are known to be renting their tenements for houses of prostitution. I have known others to contribute to the prohibition cause, and yet they rent their valuable "business corners" for saloon purposes to call them by no worse names. Still others have been personally and financially interested in finding an easier way for the youth of the land to get out from under the tyrant's lash in the factory and shop. And yet these same "givers to the cause" are the most avaricious and unrelenting employers of child labor, doing this, be it said to their shame, in open violation of the law.

These are some of the "doers" who should be "done," and that, too, right speedily. Why not refuse their criminal wealth and publish their acts of omission and commission by proxy? This is one of the crying needs of the hour in nearly every large city. "Clean the Augean stable."

JOHN DOE.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN HOSPITALS

TO THE EDITOR:

It is becoming increasingly evident to those who have been interested in the development of social service as a part of the equipment of a hospital, whether in connection with wards or out-patient, that to obtain efficient work it will be necessary to define its legitimate field and its limitations,—the latter perhaps the more vital as well as the more difficult task.

One of the most obvious functions of such work is to serve as a link between the various charitable societies and the hospital.

The Social Service Department in connection with the Massachusetts General Hospital Out-patient made a small effort in this direction during the current year in the shape of five lectures delivered to social workers by three well known Boston physicians in one of the clinical amphitheaters of the hospital. Three were by Dr. Richard C. Cabot on (1) Venereal Diseases, (2) Some Infectious Diseases, (3) Insanity, and some Psychoneuroses; one was by Dr. Robert Osgood on Certain Orthopedic Diseases of Special Interest to Social Workers; one by Dr. Charles J. White on Certain Diseases of the Skin.

There was an effort made to turn these lectures into informal talks by inviting suggestions for topics and giving ample opportunity for questions.

It is possible that other "medical social workers" may see their way to enlarge on this small beginning.

GERTRUDE L. FARMER.

Social Service Department, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Mass.

THE NATIONAL CHILD BUREAU

TO THE EDITOR:

Apropos of the proposed federal children's bureau may I not offer suggestions as to a method for the "collection and dissemination of accurate information"?

In addition to its constructive work of collecting statistics on the welfare of children, a function of the bureau should be the formation of a library which should include everything of importance on the subject in every form.

By means of intelligent classification and cataloging and by the use of modern library and business devices it is entirely feasible to make all such material readily available.

An advisory board of experts in the various departments of child caring by skillful evaluation of such collected material could enable those in charge to direct inquirers to the best material for their purposes. The scope of the bureau would be much extended if this expert opinion were placed at the service of all by its publication, and wide yet

discriminating dissemination throughout the United States. The possibilities are indeed endless which are opened by organized co-operation with other agencies.

Nor would the dissemination be limited to the bibliography of the subject, but the literature itself would be distributed. The invaluable pamphlet material put forth by voluntary organizations could be forwarded to the bureau for gratuitous distribution to applicants, whether societies or individuals. Moreover a flexible travelling library system

could place miscellaneous material at the disposal of libraries, colleges, churches, schools, clubs, lecturers, etc.

I believe that the plan as outlined is entirely practicable and that it is decidedly worth trying, and that appropriations of public money for the organization and maintenance of such a bureau can be secured when once the need for such an institution is fully grasped.

EMMA L. ADAMS.

Boston.

JOTTINGS

Summer Session of New York School of Philanthropy.—The formal opening meeting of the Summer Session of the New York School of Philanthropy, with an address by Dr. Albert Shaw, has been postponed from June 14 to June 21. The regular work of the summer session began June 15.

Model New York Dancing Academies.—One of the immediate results of the passage of the act to regulate and license dancing academies is the prospect for the speedy establishment of at least ten model dance halls. The Committee on Amusements and Vacation Resources has received two gifts which make this possible. The halls will be placed so that they will be in competition with other resorts and every effort will be made to see that these academies bear no distinguishing mark from those run for purely commercial purposes.

The committee will make public the results of its investigations of vacation resources including picnic places and excursion boats at a conference to be called about the middle of June.

Hygiene in Massachusetts.—Boston is alert to opportunities for educational work in hygiene. The Bath Department has opened the Cabot street bathhouse for lectures on sex hygiene. The first one by Dr. Francis D. Donoghue, medical examiner at the bathhouse, was attended by three hundred people. It forms the beginning of a well defined movement related to the bath and gymnasium. President Eliot of Harvard is chairman of a session of the next Massachusetts State Conference of Charities Committee on Sex Hygiene, and a committee of social workers has been formed to further the cause of school hygiene. At present the committee is acting as social service auxiliary to the Dental Hygiene Council and is making plans for systematic development of dental care in clinics. The chairman is Dr. W. R. Woodbury of the Boston Dispensary and the secretary W. H. Pear of the Provident Association. The members are representatives of the School Committee, Associa-

ted Charities, Civic League, Juvenile Court, Health Inspector, Trustees for Children, South End House, Peabody House, and other organizations.

Sociological Conference, Sagamore Beach.—The Third Sociological Conference will be held at Sagamore Beach, Massachusetts, June 29, 30 and July 1. The number of set addresses is very limited in order that there may be free discussion by all the members of the conference. Among the topics to be taken up are The Social Progress of the Past Year, The Whole World's Social Unrest, The Negro in a Democracy, How Industrial Education will bring Social Reconstruction, The Cost of Crowding Women Workers, The Social Message of the Hebrew Prophets, the Transition from the Present to a Co-operative Society. The speakers include Rabbi Stephen S. Wise of the Free Synagogue, New York; William T. Ellis, the Philadelphia journalist; Robert A. Woods of South End House, Boston; Mrs. Raymond Robins of Chicago; Ray Stannard Baker; Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch of Rochester Theological Seminary; and Paul U. Kellogg of THE SURVEY, New York.

New Home for Girls.—The home for Jewish girls recently opened in New York by the Emmanuel Sisterhood is, in the words of the president, Mrs. William Einstein, intended "primarily for Jewish girls under sixteen whose first offences have brought them into the juvenile court, as well as for girls tried for minor offences in the Court of Special Sessions." The home which is well equipped will give special training in sewing, cooking and other household activities. Because of its limited capacity, some of the girls will have to be returned to their families, under oversight by a member of the committee pledged to act as friend and adviser for a definite period.

WANTED.—Graduate nurse for district work. Salary \$35.00 and home. Address H, care of SURVEY.

The Best Remedy for the Dust Evil

Medical authorities are constantly calling attention to the menace of disease-laden dust in public places. Large expanses of untreated floors are especially dangerous, because air currents and other disturbances will set the dust in circulation and so increase the liability of contagion.



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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

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A Correction.—The caption under the picture of James P. Munroe, p. 388 of the SURVEY for June 5, referred to him as president of the Twentieth Century Club of Boston. This is an error. The Rev. Charles F. Dole has for eight years been president of the club.

Congestion and City Planning.—On Monday, June 21st, the Conference on Congestion and City Planning opened in the Second Battery Armory, New York. The exhibit will remain open, free of charge, until June 30th. Interesting evening programs have been prepared.

Directory of Trade Schools.—The Henry Street Settlement has issued a Directory of Trade, Industrial and Art Schools in Greater New York. The pamphlet will be of help to teachers, settlement workers and parents wishing advice about the next step for the child just out of school. The booklet is divided into four chapters: Day Schools for Girls; Evening Schools for Women and Girls; Day Schools for Boys; Evening Schools for Men and Boys and Nautical Schools.

THE COMMON WELFARE

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY COMMISSION, NEW YORK

With the naming of Governor Hughes's six appointees, the membership of the commission "to inquire into the question of employers' liability and also into the causes and effects of unemployment in the state of New York," is now complete. The Legislature is represented on the commission by Senators Wainwright of Westchester, Platt of Steuben (republicans), and Bain of Staten Island (democrat), and by Assemblymen Lowe of Jefferson, Voss of Kings, Thorn of Erie, C. W. Phillips of Monroe (republicans), and Jackson of Erie (democrat).

The governor's appointees are: Henry R. Seager, president of the New York branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation and professor of political economy in Columbia University; Otto M. Eidlitz, builder, New York; John Mitchell, American Federation of Labor, New York; George W. Smith of the Buffalo, Lackawanna Steel and Iron Company, general superintendent of the Seneca Transportation Company and president of the Central Railway Club; Philip Titus of Kingston, passenger conductor and chairman of general committee of adjustment of the New York, Ontario and Western Railroad; Miss Crystal Eastman, author and investigator, of New York.

This commission has a great opportunity before it, and it is well chosen. Including, as it does, legislators already known for their genuine interest in progress, excellent representatives of capital and labor, and an economist of the practical modern type, we have every reason to hope that it will prove equal to its two-fold task.

LABOR OFFICIALS' CONFERENCE IN ROCHESTER

A conference of officials engaged in the enforcing of the labor laws both in the United States and Canada, was held in Rochester, N. Y., June 15 and 18.

Two associations were represented, the officials of the Bureau of Labor Statistics which met for the twenty-fifth time, and the International Association of Factory Inspectors. While the conference consisted mostly of the ordinary routine business and the informal discussion on details of local enforcement, yet the general public found interest in the discussions of the need of co-operation between these agencies and again between these and the National Census Bureau.

The unfortunate absence, on account of illness, of John B. Andrews, executive secretary of the American Labor Association, made it impossible to work out the possible correlation of the work of the associations with that of the American Association for Labor Legislation. The national government was represented by Dr. Steuart of the Census Bureau, who arranged that during those years in which the bureau was engaged in taking the total census of the country, the bureaus of labor statistics should discontinue their activities, thus avoiding unnecessary duplication. Demands for similar statistics from several bureaus upon the same manufacturer at different times during the same year has caused much dissatisfaction.

While the conference agreed to the general proposition of any co-operation that would avoid duplication, it was pointed out that in some states, notably in Massachusetts, it would be possible for the national bureau to use the state agency for gathering its statistics, while in other states an arrangement might be made whereby the state bureau could use the statistics of the national bureau, receiving them in turn for the annual state publication. The convention resolved that the national authorities should be invited to take the matter up with individual state bureaus.

At the meeting of the factory inspectors, besides the excellent papers presented by Messrs. O'Leary and Schnur of the New York state department, the

principal interest centered about the report of Edgar T. Davies, chief inspector of Illinois. Mr. Davies urged laws similar to those recently enacted in Illinois in regard to health and welfare regulations in factories and workshops. A lively discussion followed the paper of Commissioner John Williams of the New York department in which the different attitude towards problems in several states was clearly shown, the discussion centering about the question of the proper function of a factory inspector in his relations to that of a statistician and mediator. The opinion of the factory inspectors was almost unanimous in feeling that their work should not be too closely attached to that of the statistician and they opposed the bringing together of the two organizations. In a special meeting of the statisticians it was resolved that their organization should enlarge its scope so as to allow them to take in mediators, labor inspectors, superintendents of free employment bureaus, etc. The name of the association was changed to the International Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor. The following officers were elected:

President, Charles B. Neill, United States commissioner of labor; vice-president, C. F. Gettamy, chief of Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics; second vice-president, Edward W. Vandyne, Iowa; secretary and treasurer, W. L. A. Johnson, Kansas; board of directors, M. L. Shipman, Charles P. Neill, Edward J. Watson, Charles F. Fox, U. L. A. Johnson.

ASSOCIATED CHARITIES

ADVANCES IN PITTSBURGH

By the organization of a Children's Bureau, and a Charities' Endorsement Committee last week, the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh may indeed be said to have "all the modern improvements." The history of the organization is like that of a far western town, which to-day is a railroad platform, and tomorrow has outdone its eastern sisters in development.

Only a brief year ago Pittsburgh charities for children were practically isolated, their workers were unrelated units, and in the main did not know what charity organization meant. To-day,

these same people are talking eagerly of an efficient registration system; of physical examination of children; of home investigation and the like. It is worthy of remark that this rallying around new ideas has been by unanimous vote—a strong and good sign, both for the ideas and for the people.

The resolution to establish a Children's Bureau, proposed at the Western Pennsylvania Conference on Dependent Children, called by the Central Council of Associated Charities, was unanimously adopted. There has been steadily increasing interest in the maturing of the plan. Delegates from the various organizations which took part in the children's conference, decided the one great question of how the rolling ball should be directed into its hole. Should it be independent or connected with an already organized association? It was unanimously decided to have the bureau as a department of the Associated Charities and under a special children's committee, appointed by children's agencies, this committee in turn to appoint a sub-committee to finance the department. The bureau is to be in immediate charge of a special agent who, while working in connection with the general registration system of the Associated Charities, will undertake to investigate cases of children upon request and will further all the activities of the bureau.

When the obvious need for a central agency to report upon charities was expressed by several sources, the whole proposition was submitted to the Central Council of the Associated Charities representing in its monthly meetings, the eighty-two philanthropies that have joined the association. They were asked whether the charities endorsement function should be left to be developed by a commercial organization distinct from the charities, or whether the latter should establish and "back up" the movement. Many suggested that the Associated Charities should assume the function, but the officers of the latter organization argued that, as a new organization, the association should not be placed in a position of censorship. Finally a committee was appointed to confer with the charitable and the civic-commercial or-

ganizations of Pittsburgh. They brought in a report recommending the appointment, by the Central Council, of a special "charities" endorsement and advice committee" to comprise representation of the principal charities and of the commercial and civic bodies. This committee is to have a special agent ranking as an assistant secretary of the associated charities. The committee is to be sufficiently independent, however, to investigate the work of the Associated Charities itself as well as any other charitable agency. The personnel of the committee is regarded as especially important. It is being developed with a view to enlisting such representative, influential men as will lift the committee above the imputation of being merely a creature of one charitable organization, and make it thoroughly acceptable to all sincere agencies.

OKLAHOMA AND TUBERCULOUS PHYSICIANS

The American Medical Association at its recent Atlantic City meeting took a decided stand against the action of the Board of Medical Examiners of Oklahoma in refusing to grant licenses to physicians having tuberculosis. Dr. S. A. Knopf introduced resolutions which stated that not only was the "clean, conscientious and trained consumptive" not a menace to his fellow man, but his added knowledge of the disease made him particularly qualified as a physician. "The experience in this country and abroad has demonstrated," read the resolutions, "that tuberculous physicians, more than any other class, have advanced the best methods of cure of tuberculosis and have been most active in the tuberculosis propaganda."

The section on hygiene and sanitary science of the association expressed "the profound wish that the State Board of Medical Examiners of Oklahoma will withdraw this restriction and again open its hospitable state to all honorable physicians well qualified to practice though they may be afflicted with tuberculosis."

The resolutions were adopted by the section and confirmed by the association's house of delegates.

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH IN CINCINNATI

The "municipal research idea" so vigorously expressed by the New York bureau, has taken root in Cincinnati where the Bureau of Municipal Research has been established with the active and financial backing of the Chamber of Commerce, the Business Men's Club, the Optimist Club and the City Club.

The bureau will be in charge of Rufus E. Miles who has been actively connected with the New York bureau. F. R. Leach, also of the New York organization, will deal especially with the accounting. The first few months' work in Cincinnati will consist of preliminary inquiry to ascertain present conditions. The new bureau has no ready-made program.

The trustees are George Armstrong, Eldon R. James, J. S. Neave, J. G. Schmidlap and Judge William Worthington.

A NEW FORM OF CHILDREN'S DAY

At the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Buffalo, Bishop Fallows gave particular emphasis to the work the church is doing for social betterment. That there is much room for broader and better development, he admitted, but he believes that more and more the church is realizing its social mission. Evidence bearing out this statement is not uncommon nowadays, and an interesting instance comes from Washington of a rational change in the children's day program of the Hamline Methodist Episcopal Church.

The committee in charge of this year's program secured a series of lantern slides from the National Child Labor Committee illustrating conditions among the children of industrial communities. The pupils of the school were trained to explain the significance of the pictures, and such an impression was made on the audience, which filled the church, that the pastor was requested to show the same views on the following Sunday and tell about the actual conditions.

The observation of one retired cler-

gyman was that "a little church," meaning the children, "had been sent out upon its work twenty-five years ahead of time." "For," he explained, "not one of those children will ever again be able to assume an indifferent attitude toward children who are suffering from wrongs which ought to be righted."

GUSTAVUS A. WEBER'S NEW APPOINTMENT

Gustavus A. Weber has recently been appointed superintendent of the Octavia Hill Association, Philadelphia, following experience in Washington which fits him peculiarly for his new work. For eight years he has been in charge of the division of law and research work of the Bureau of Labor and connected with various movements to improve housing conditions. He was secretary of the housing committee of the Civic Center which in 1896 made the first systematic investigation of alley houses in the national capital. Last year he was statistician of the President's Homes Commission which made a similar investigation on a larger scale. He has been a member of the board of directors of the Washington Playground Association, chairman of a division conference of the Associated Charities, president of the Civic Center and head of a large boys' club of the Knights of King Arthur.

The Octavia Hill Association, which is the only organization in Philadelphia directly engaged in the improvement of housing conditions, works along unique lines. Instead of undertaking large improvement schemes, such as the erection of model houses or blocks, it buys old properties, repairs them, puts in modern plumbing and other conveniences and converts them into sanitary, comfortable homes within the means of an unskilled laborer. So far as possible the improvements are made without displacing the tenants or raising rents. Additionally, it undertakes the management of dwelling houses owned by others who are willing to offer them on the same terms.

By reporting abuses, by urging the sewerage of streets, forcing drainage and looking after the improvement of condi-

tions in general, the association carries on another important work which aims to bring all of the densely settled districts of the city up to the standard applied to its own houses.

The association is organized as a stock company, with capital of \$100,000 selling in twenty-five dollar shares and paying four per cent dividends. It employs both paid and volunteer rent collectors.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY

Northwestern University School of Law celebrated its fiftieth anniversary by endeavoring to perform a public service, instead of by the usual method of a dinner and more or less conventional addresses. On December 21, 1908, a committee of organization undertook to bring together, in a conference upon Criminal Law and Criminology, representative judges, lawyers, prosecutors, criminologists, alienists, sociologists, psychologists and penologists from every part of the United States. A preliminary list of those to be invited was made up by the committee, with the help of experts; and those invited, as well as the governors of the several states and the federal district judges in each state, were requested to suggest others to be passed upon by the committee. These requests were acted upon in each case most cordially, and in consequence, a highly representative gathering assembled in Chicago as guests of Northwestern University on June 7 and 8.

The purpose of the conference was to bring together the leaders among those interested in criminal law, criminal procedure and criminal law administration to the end that ideas might be exchanged, differences among those who approach the subject from diverse standpoints adjusted, and a propaganda organized for the spread of accepted principles and the study of suitable revisions of criminal law and procedure. It was taken for granted that there is a general, and in many respects well-grounded, dissatisfaction with the administration

of punitive justice in America. The criminologist complains that whereas the fear of punishment does not restrain crime, it is none the less the chief reliance of law for protecting society; that whereas his science has shown the necessity of special institutions with expert management for many classes of delinquents, the legal theory of ideal equality before the law leads criminal law to consign all offenders to a common prison; that whereas he has shown that in many cases, at least, crime is or is nearly related to disease, the law persistently deals with the criminal as a normal person. The sociologist complains that whereas the true purpose of punishment is protection of society, the basis of judicial punishment is revenge; that whereas the rights of society ought to be borne in mind continually, the law looks chiefly at individual rights; that whereas sociology has shown the necessity of study of the actual criminal, the law deals with him in the abstract and speculates over responsibility. To much of this the lawyer replies that there are inherent difficulties in the administration of all justice according to law and, in particular, in the administration of punitive justice, of which lay criticism fails to take account. Doubtless much is to be said for this point. But it is equally true that defects by no means inherent in the legal administration of justice—defects due wholly to the history of our legal system and to the ideas, modes of thought and economic conditions of the past, are too often assumed by the lawyer and the jurist to be inseparable from judicial dealing with crime. Only careful study of the problems of criminal law and criminology from all sides can differentiate the defects which are curable from those that are inherent. Hitherto, each department of learning has dealt with them independently, from its own standpoint. The purpose of the conference was to unite in one body these several interests, and so far as possible to reconcile their activities in the reform of criminal law and procedure and obviate misunderstandings. This purpose was realized, in the event, beyond the most sanguine expectations of the committee of organization.

This committee, which so ably planned and carried through the arrangements of the conference, was headed by Prof. Roscoe Pound, of the Northwestern University law faculty, soon to be connected with the University of Chicago. During the last two years he has been a leader in the American Bar Association in calling attention to the causes at the bottom of the defects in our administration of criminal justice.

A program of formal addresses and papers was thought not desirable. It seemed to the committee on organization that the purposes of the conference would be served best by taking the opinions and listening to the views of the members upon the many topics suggested for consideration by those who had taken an interest in the conference. Each person invited was requested to suggest one or more topics for discussion. In this way one hundred and thirty-four propositions were brought together, printed by the committee, and submitted to the conference. Obviously it was not feasible to attempt to formulate conclusions upon these propositions nor to undertake full discussion of them before the whole conference. But the bringing together, in this way, of the views of the leading experts of the country upon almost every point connected with criminal law and the administration of criminal law in the United States was, of itself, no small service to American criminology. It is not unlikely that the compilation of the views of American judges, lawyers, prosecutors, alienists, criminologists, psychologists, penologists and sociologists thus made, will for some time be the basis of study in this country.

In order to take up the subjects suggested more conveniently, at the first meeting on the morning of June 7, the conference after electing James Haggan of St. Louis, former president of the American Bar Association, permanent chairman, divided itself into three sections. The first was called the section on treatment (penal and remedial) of offenders. It was opened, on behalf of the committee of organization, by Dr. H. B. Farrel of Chicago, and elected Dr. Lightner Witmer of Philadelphia, chairman, and Prof. Edwin R. Keedy, of

the University of Indiana, secretary. Among those who took a prominent part in the work of this section were Dr. Francis Bacon of New Haven, Conn.; Joseph P. Byers, general secretary of the American Prison Association; Homer Folks, chairman of the New York State Probation Commission; Joseph Jastrow, professor of psychology in the University of Wisconsin; John Koren of Boston, special investigator for the United States Census Bureau on Juvenile Delinquents; Dr. Adolf Meyer, president of the New York Psychiatric Society; Dr. Morton Prince of Boston; Dr. Haldor Sneve of St. Paul, Minn., and A. W. Towne of New York, secretary of the State Probation Committee. This section, after four days of discussion and after hearing the reports of several committees, recommended these subjects for discussion by a future conference:

First, the investigation of the complex factors combining to encourage and establish the persistent offender, particularly with reference to hereditary taint and disability. Second, the investigation of the influences attaching to the traffic in drugs and intoxicants as a widespread excitant to instability, in turn provocative of crime. Third, the investigation of an effective system for recording the physical and moral status and the hereditary and environmental conditions of delinquents, the same to contemplate in complex urban conditions, the guidance of a consulting expert.

Section two, entitled organization, appointment and training of officials, was opened by Judge Julian W. Mack. Prof. Edward A. Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, was made chairman and John H. Marble of Washington, D. C., secretary. Among those who took part in the work of this section were: Very Reverend George A. Beecher, of Omaha; Wilfred Bolster, chief justice of the Municipal Court of Boston; William H. DeLacey, judge of the Juvenile Court, Washington, D. C.; Hugo Krause, chief probation officer, Louisville, Ky.; Philip Rubenstein, associate justice of the Juvenile Court of Boston, and Robert B. Scott, professor of political science in the University of Wisconsin. This section recommended laboratories for the

study of convicted criminals, conferences on criminology in the several states at stated intervals which judges and prosecutors be invited to attend, systematic training of police officers, particularly in the matter of gathering evidence, and distinct laws to be administered by courts with chancery jurisdiction for juvenile offenders.

Section three, entitled criminal law and procedure, was opened by Robert McMurphy of Chicago. Prof. William E. Mikell, of the University of Pennsylvania, was made chairman, and H. J. Friedman, of Chicago, secretary. It was made up of lawyers and judges from every part of the country. It recommended, among other things, a committee of five to inquire into the administration of criminal procedure in great Britain and in other countries for the purpose of comparison with our own, consolidation of the several offenses against property so as to obviate technical quibbles, that the state be allowed to appeal, that no convictions be reversed for error of procedure unless it is shown affirmatively that there was a miscarriage of justice, and that a committee be appointed to study the law and procedure in criminal causes where insanity is claimed.

At the final meeting of the conference, on June 8, pursuant to a recommendation of the committee on resolutions, of which John D. Lawson of Missouri, a well known writer on criminal law, was chairman, it was determined to organize a permanent society to be called The American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. Prof. John H. Wigmore, with whom the idea of the conference originated, was chosen president of the institute, and Prof. Edwin R. Keedy secretary. The details of organization were referred to a committee of ten, of which Mr. Mikell of Philadelphia, is chairman.

As a result of the conference a vigorous and effective propaganda for a more scientific criminal law and a more efficient administration thereof may not unreasonably be anticipated.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE IN BUFFALO

The Conference of Charities and Correction never laid truer claim to being national than at its thirty-sixth session in Buffalo last week. Territorially its delegates represent a national constituency. The enrolment not only includes almost every state and territory, but shows a better proportion of delegates from different sections of the country, notably from those older states which were slow to respond, and from the newer states which have quickly taken their place among the most interested and loyal constituents of the conference.

Ernest P. Bicknell's admirable presidential address on the Red Cross and great disasters gave particular emphasis to the breadth of discussion and even the international scope that the conference has assumed. It will be remembered that his selection as president of the conference was shortly followed by his appointment as director of the American National Red Cross.

The founders of the conference were naturally and wisely cautious, through most of its history, in recognizing other than charitable and correctional interests by admitting them to the programs or by appointing standing committees to represent them. Specialization along the original lines upon which the conference was first laid out was thought to be necessary to hold it together and to make it count. But within a very few years one after another of the broader points of view has made good its claim of vital relationship to the causes originally espoused. Thus "needy families in their homes" has annexed "neighborhoods and municipalities," and the charity and settlement workers who used to think they had no dealings with each other, now are equally co-operative in promoting their community of interests through the conference. "Children," simply as such, and not merely as juvenile defectives or dependents or delinquents, are accorded their



JANE ADDAMS.

rightfully large place in the section work. "Immigrants" have added themselves to objects which receive the most sympathetic and exacting consideration. "Statistics" have rallied to their separate section some of the foremost statisticians of the land. Neither poverty nor progress can now be intelligently estimated without counting in "health and sanitation" as integral factors of its problems. The propositions of supervision and administration have for their corollaries "the press and publicity." And last but by no means least, industrial conditions and relationships together with economic exactions and ethics have been recognized to have such persuasive and determining influence that they have been assigned to a standing committee of specialists on "occupational standards."

There are signs which indicate that the conference is to be an occasion which will draw together independent groups whose special interests are closely related to but not identical with its specialized purpose or program. Already the directors of the schools of philanthropy

take this occasion for their conference with each other and with the Russell Sage Foundation, under whose auspices their research departments are conducted. The dinner held by the association of the New York school is one of the pleasantest reunions of conference week. The probation officers of juvenile courts and parole boards met in connection with the conference. Agents of remedial loan associations assembled for the first time as a subsidiary body. A separate conference of Jewish charities also convened at the same time and city with a program of its own. If these independent groups will continue to recognize the community of their interests with those of the national conference, and can be held as constituent bodies in its membership, their specialized purposes will add to the variety and purposefulness of its annual meetings, without necessarily detracting either attendance or participation from its general sessions. Indeed the section meetings are susceptible of great development along the lines of more highly specialized and organized interests.

Perhaps the most marked advance ever made by the National Conference of Charities and Correction, without regard to precedent or help from usage, was the belated recognition of the equality of woman with man on the humanitarian field by the election of Jane Addams to the presidency. On the programs and the committees women have long proven their ability to hold their own, and sometimes more, with the best men. For years there have been women in the conference whose distinguished achievements and whose participation in the proceedings of the conference have demonstrated them to be the peers of the ablest men it has ever enlisted. Any one of several such might have been selected for the presidency with absolute confidence in the success of her administration. But they will all agree that Miss Addams is the first among equals who is worthy to be again the first of her kind. In this connection it is also well to note, when the over-towering leadership of the founders and longtime leaders of the conference is missed, that the rise of the rank in intelligence, efficiency and influ-

ence leaves less room for conspicuous difference between those who lead and those who simply achieve.

The conference officers for next year are:

President, Jane Addams, Chicago; first vice-president, F. H. Nibecker, Glen Mills, Pa.; second vice-president, Ansley Wilcox, Buffalo, N. Y.; third vice-president, Judge William H. DeLacy, Washington, D. C.; general secretary, Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.; assistant secretaries, H. H. Shirer, Columbus, O.; W. C. Graves, Springfield, Ill.; J. T. Mastin, Richmond, Va.; Eugene T. Lies, Minneapolis, Minn.; Hubert Huson, Guthrie, Oklahoma; Roger U. Baldwin, St. Louis, Mo.; treasurer, Edward Boyle, Chicago, Ill. Executive committee, the ex-presidents as follows: Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Ohio (1879); F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts (1880); Fred H. Wines, Illinois (1881); William P. Letchworth, New York (1884); Hastings H. Hart, Illinois (1893); Robert Treat Palne, Massachusetts (1895); Alexander Johnson, Indiana (1897); William R. Stewart, New York (1898); Charles R. Henderson, Illinois (1899); Charles E. Faulkner, Minnesota (1900); John M. Glenn, Maryland (1901); Timothy Nicholson, Indiana (1902); Robert W. de Forest, New York (1903); Jeffrey R. Brackett, Massachusetts (1904); Rev. Samuel G. Smith, D. D., Minnesota (1905); Edward T. Devine, New York (1906); Amos W. Butler, Indiana (1907); Thomas M. Mulry, New York (1908); Ernest P. Bicknell, Illinois (1909); the president, Jane Addams; the first vice-president, F. H. Nibecker; and the following additional persons: W. Almont Gates, San Francisco, Cal.; Rev. Francis A. Gavis, Indianapolis, Ind.; A. W. Gutridge, St. Paul, Minn.; C. M. Hubbard, Cincinnati, O.; A. J. McKelway, Atlanta, Ga.; W. H. McLain, St. Louis, Mo.; Miss Mary L. Perry, St. Louis, Mo.; Col. Thomas D. Osborne, Louisville, Ky.; Max Senior, Cincinnati, O.

The chairmen of the committees are: Reports of states, Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.

State supervision and administration, George S. Robinson, Des Moines, Ia.

Families and neighborhoods, Mary E. Richmond, Philadelphia.

The school and the community, Prof. Thomas J. Riley, St. Louis, Mo.

Children, George S. Addams, Juvenile Court, Cleveland, Ohio.

Health and sanitation, Dr. Charles P. Emerson, Clifton Springs, N. Y.

Law breakers, Frederick G. Pettigrove, Boston, Mass.

Occupational standards, Paul U. Kellogg, New York.

Publicity, John Stewart Bryan, Richmond, Va.

Statistics, John Koren, Boston, Mass.

Remedial loans, W. A. Finley, Baltimore, Md.

IMMIGRANTS

JANE ADDAMS

In the entire work of the committee on immigrants great care was taken that the papers should not discuss the problems of immigration, but should deal with the immigrants themselves as they are found throughout the country and in the congested quarters of the large cities.

The first session was held Thursday morning, and dealt with the subject The Immigrant Finding Work, this being the natural beginning, for the one thing which is essential for every newly arrived foreigner is "a job."

A paper, written by Mr. David A. Bressler, of the Industrial Removal Society of New York, dealt with relieving the congestion in seaboard towns; and one by W. A. Gates, with The Oriental Immigrant on the Pacific Coast.

Miss Grace Abbott, director of the League for the Protection of Immigrants, of Chicago, gave the experiences of many men in Chicago with the employment agencies; emphasizing especially the dependence upon unscrupulous agents of laborers employed on the railroads. She made the point that the unnatural living conditions in the railroad camps had, in the case of the early Irish-Americans, produced the American hobo, and that we were at the present time manufacturing hoboes as fast as possible by subjecting the Hungarians, Greeks and Italians to the same experiences.

She gave striking examples of men who had been sent from Chicago to Arkansas only to find that the towns to which they had been sent offered no work, and they were compelled to walk back to Chicago to get their next job. This happened to two large groups of men—one of Hungarians and one of Bulgarians, both sent to Leslie, Ark. Although work might have been found within a few hundred miles of Leslie, in order to know of it they had to return to Chicago.

Experiences such as these unquestionably frighten the immigrant so that

he will not leave the city again under any conditions, and feels that the hardships and uncertainty of country life are unendurable. This state of mind adds an unsupportable difficulty in our attempts to relieve the congestion of the cities.

In the general discussion many cases of exploitation through employment agencies were reported, and it is evident that these agencies are greatly in need of reform in all the large cities.

Saturday morning, June 12, the topic was The Adjustment of the School System to the Need of the Immigrant. Three papers were given, one by Dr. David Blaustein, head of the Hebrew Institute, Chicago; one by Dr. Peter Roberts, superintendent of the educational work for immigrants of the Industrial Department of the national Y. M. C. A., and one upon The Child Life on the Streets, by Philip Davis, supervisor of the licensed minors of Boston.

While these three papers contained much of value, that by Miss Sarah W. Moore was so full of original suggestions that it became the center of a lively discussion. The school Miss Moore described has been devoted to the workmen who are at present building the Ashokan Dam for the city of New York. In this school the Italian laborers are first taught all the words which they need in their daily work—words of command and warning. To reinforce the latter, buckets filled with bean bags are attached to the center of the school-room in imitation of the swinging buckets holding concrete, and everything possible is done to make the acquisition of English vivid and immediate.

Miss Moore read a number of letters written by her pupils who had left the school, which were human documents of the greatest possible interest, even though written "under the fatigue of the shovel" as picturesquely put by one of the men.

The fourth section meeting dealt with Adjustment of the Legal Machinery to the Needs of the Immigrant. The first paper, The Relation of the Alien to the Administration of Civil and Criminal

Law, was by Gino Speranza, attorney for the Society for Italian Immigrants and members of the New York Immigration Commission. Mr. Speranza stated that about eighty per cent of the arrests among immigrants had to do with the violation of city ordinances, and were not in any sense criminal, but were almost entirely the result of ignorance and maladjustment to new conditions.

Judge Emmanuel Levine, of Cleveland, Ohio, gave his personal experiences with immigrants in the Police Court. He stirred to righteous wrath his interested audience with the incidents he told concerning the wanton exploitation of the immigrant, not only by professional bondsmen and shyster lawyers, but by the legally appointed hangers-on of the police courts.

Douglas C. McMurtry gave a short paper, *The Health of the Immigrant*, a Study of Typhoid in Pittsburgh, which was suggestive rather than conclusive.

The discussion following these papers Monday morning was participated in by several people representing nationalities living in Buffalo, so the entire morning was full of interest.

The last morning's meeting dealt with the child of the immigrant. A paper by Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, president of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago, on *The Delinquent Children of Immigrant Parents* set forth with great clearness and a wealth of incident the difficulties which surround the child in a large city, the temptations to which he is exposed and the aid which can so quickly be brought to surmount these difficulties if an intelligent body of people are concerned and will undertake the work.

Miss Lillian D. Wald, a member of the Immigrant Commission of the State of New York, discussed *The Immigrant Young Girl*, analyzing the results of the commission and the need of better interstate regulations if we would deal at all adequately with the white slave traffic. Justice Brewer's opinion, recently handed down, has pronounced unconsti-

tutional the law prohibiting the harboring of immigrant girls for immoral purposes. The discussion naturally covered the entire white slave traffic, and some of the testimony given by Miss Miner, of the Night Court of New York, and others, was startling.

The fact that fully two-thirds of the girls in houses of prostitution in the larger cities have been put there by men engaged in such traffic, places the non-English-speaking girl in a position of peculiar defenselessness.

The general session of this section was held Saturday evening. A short introduction of the meeting was given by the writer, the chairman of the committee, who contended that the average American was inhibited by something akin to contempt from ever seeing, much less really knowing, the many immigrants who live in his vicinity. America thus fails to develop possibilities that would be of inestimable value to the cultural as well as to the industrial forces of the national life. The meeting was addressed by Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, of Cornell University, and of the Congressional Immigration Committee, who gave an outline of the investigations at the present time being pursued by his commission; but, of course, he could not as yet state results. He was followed by Prof. George H. Mead, of the University of Chicago, who spoke upon *The Adjustment of our Industry to Surplus and Unskilled Labor*. Professor Mead contended that the immigrants who have built the railroads and tunnels, and done the heaviest work for the nation, have thereby placed us under a lasting obligation; that they are no longer to be considered aliens, and that they have, by their faithful effort and, in many cases "faithful even unto death," become a part of the national life.

The third paper, *Difficulties of Deportation and Extradition*, was to be given by Judge Julian W. Mack, president of the League for the Protection of Immigrants, of Chicago, who was unfortunately detained.

STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION

FRANK A. FETTER

The two words "supervision and administration" in the title of this committee are not synonyms, but indicate two different aspects of state boards. Supervision refers to the advisory function, and administration to the responsible business management including the appointment of superintendents. The report of the committee presented a careful study of the laws of all the states and territories. It showed that only fifteen still retain the simple plan of separate boards of managers without any unifying relation through a central body with any other of the state institutions; sixteen have supervisory boards only; eleven have no supervisory board, but have unified under a central administrative board two or more of their state institutions; and seven have both supervisory and central administrative boards over more or less of the field. Minnesota, Nebraska and Oklahoma (and Illinois by the law just enacted) have duplicate systems providing for both central administration and supervision. The facts were brought out more clearly by a series of charts made from data prepared by the class in philanthropy at Cornell University. The report compared in detail the advantages and disadvantages of centralized boards of administration and supervisory boards and presented the following conclusions:

First, the first and most essential condition for the humane, economical and progressive conduct of the state philanthropic institutions, is the exclusion of partisan politics. The merit system should prevail, and for this end the one essential is not any particular form of board necessarily, but is a moral and intelligent public opinion regarding the merit system in penal and charitable institutions.

Second, the sound growth of the philanthropies of the state requires the utmost participation by citizens in philanthropic work, thus developing intelligent interest in the wards of the state and an understanding of the difficulties and needs of the institutions. This ideal is greatly advanced by a complete system of supervision by a non-paid or a nominally paid board, with paid secre-

tary and assistants, covering the state as a whole.

Third, the supervisory boards should, much more fully than most of them have done in the past, take the initiative in the formulation of progressive philanthropic policies for their states.

Fourth, such a degree of unification of business management of state institutions is desirable as is most economical for each class of institutions in view of its peculiar administrative problems, and as is most economical in each state in view of distances, means of transportation and communication, the possible improvements in methods of purchasing supplies, of interchanging products, and of maintaining the efficiency of the administration.

Fifth, the local jails should be brought under the supervision of a central board in each state preliminary to a complete centralization of control of the minor penal institutions of the state.

Sixth, state supervision of local public charities, both institutional and outdoor relief, should be provided in every state; and local county visiting committees, both for charities and jails, may helpfully co-operate with the state supervisory board.

Seventh, state supervision of private charities, without interference with religious or other private matters, should be based on the recognition of the public nature of these associations, implied not only in public aid in the form of money, but in exemption from taxation, and involved necessarily in the social problems with which they deal.

H. C. Bowman, the legal member of the Kansas Board of Control of State Institutions, presented a paper upon the subject of the work that the state ought to carry on and the work that ought to be carried on by private benevolence. He examined the fundamental principles of taxation as laid down by the courts. These principles, the speaker showed, are in some regards more restricted than those now held by economists. Following the view of the courts, the speaker argued that the individual citizens ought, wherever possible, to pay for their support and that of the members of their families in hospitals for the insane and in other institutions for dependents. He urged state care, but favored making the counties responsible for the payment of the cost. He examined in turn the claims of each class of dependents and their claims upon public support. He favored much stricter supervision of private charity and strongly opposed subsidies to private institutions.

David F. Tilley, member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities, spoke on the subject of private charities without state supervision. He gave a clear analysis of the problems involved in the supervision of private charities, showed that many of the objections of the private societies were based on a misunderstanding of the purpose of supervision and on an undue fear as to the method in which this would be carried out. He favored a more general and systematic oversight of private charities by the state, and predicted that within a year changes in the direction of greater supervision would be made in Massachusetts and in other states.

William C. Graves, executive secretary of the Illinois State Board of Charities, speaking on *The Problem of State Supervision in Illinois*, described the efforts made for three years past to provide a more adequate system of control and supervision. His discussion was most timely, as a bill embodying those features was passed by the Illinois Legislature a few days before the conference assembled at Buffalo, and the very day of this session was the last the governor had to consider the measure before signing or vetoing it. The bill as passed by the Legislature was in its essential features the same as that prepared by a special committee after consultation with experts from all parts of the country. It provided for a complete system of centralized administration of state institutions in place of the present administration by separate boards, and provided, parallel with this, a complete system of supervision by a state board and by separate boards of visitors for each institution. The nature and number of the questions put by persons in the audience showed that this legislation was recognized to be of epoch-making importance.

In the opinion of a number of the older members of the conference the three papers given by Messrs. Bowman, Tilley and Graves attained an average not heretofore surpassed by any series of papers presented in a session on state supervision and administration.

The section meeting held Monday

morning took up some of the problems of translating the sound ideas and high aspirations of the national conference into reality and the statute law of the state. H. S. Braucher of Portland, Me., presented a strong paper urging the need of a federal bureau of charities, not merely for children, but for all the subjects within the field of philanthropy. He showed the incalculable service it would render in furnishing information and guidance for reform legislation in each state. He illustrated by numerous examples where the information desired had not been available, and contrasted the experience in these cases with that in other cases where the information fortunately had been at hand. He drew a strong contrast between the activity of the national government in the furtherance of agriculture, commerce and labor legislation, and its inactivity in the furtherance of legislation touching the welfare of the weaker citizens.

H. W. Charles, superintendent of the State Industrial School of Topeka, Kansas, urged in the discussion that the states should increase their activity in providing information and guidance for wise action. He pointed out the waste now found in the philanthropic household. We must be more intelligently advised as to the causes of the waste. As a matter of business the state should take the lead in obtaining authoritative information. Every institution dealing with the dependent, the defective, and the delinquent classes should become a laboratory for the study of the causes of the pathological conditions with which it deals. True it is that many institutions are doing something at this work; but the speaker urged that such efforts should now be centralized under a directive head in each state.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson, president of the New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association, spoke out of her wide experience in connection with charitable legislation upon the subject, *Legislators and How to Approach Them*. She gave wise counsel, illustrated by personal experiences, to those having philanthropic measures to urge before the Legislature. Taking as fund-

amental the fact that legislators can always be brought to vote for measures favored by a strong sentiment among their constituents, she showed how many patient campaigns for good laws had suddenly ended in victory when the situation seemed most discouraging.

These views were interestingly confirmed and supplemented by E. T. Hartman, secretary of the Massachusetts State Civic League, who demonstrated his acquaintance with the arts of the righteous lobbyist. Delegates from Illinois, Arkansas, Kansas and several of the state boards took part in the discussion.

The deliberations in the sessions of this committee at Buffalo evidenced much progress toward clearer conceptions of the needs and fields for supervision and central administration. There was far less controversy as to mere form and far more agreement upon the fundamentals of non-partisan administration, the development of public sentiment, and the attainment of a progressive policy in state philanthropy. The deliberations at this conference will surely bear fruit in legislation in the not distant future.

It is an interesting consideration that members of state boards organized the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and for many years their peculiar problems occupied nearly all the time at the meetings. Year by year, especially of late, new subjects have been included, and the discussions have taken a wider and wider range. But it is a mistake to suppose that the importance of this subject of state supervision and administration has diminished. On the contrary, it has grown with the great growth of state public expenditures for these purposes, now far exceeding \$100,000,000 a year. It has grown with the need of closer co-operation between the many private agencies and the public agencies. This subject must continue to claim the undiminished attention of the national conference until everywhere the merit system prevails in the administration of charities and correction, and until effective organization has been extended to every state in the union and to every branch of the public philanthropic service.

STATISTICS

JOHN KOREN

The committee on statistics is entering upon its fifth year. The sustained interest shown in its work has been most gratifying. The fact that year after year large conference audiences listen with manifest interest to reports and papers on various phases of statistical work can only be interpreted as evidence of a growing demand on the part of the worker as well as on the part of the student for more systematic knowledge.

This year's committee report dealt with census statistics of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes. Although at the present writing it does not appear to be definitely decided what legislation will eventually govern the census of 1910, it was assumed that it will include an enumeration of the special classes mentioned above. The last enumeration of this kind took place in 1904, or three years after the general census of population. The advantage of being able to apply population statistics of the same year to the facts concerning pauperism, crime, insanity, etc., is obvious and one of the chief reasons for an enumeration of the special classes at the time of a general census.

The reasons for limiting the enumeration of the special classes to those in institutions were explained. It is not a question of what is desirable but what is feasible at the time of a general census. The insufficiency of inquiries restricted to institutional population is readily recognized, especially where such classes of the population as the feeble-minded or the blind are concerned. Unfortunately, competent statistics in regard to groups like these cannot be obtained except by the employment of trained investigators who are not easily found, least of all in an effort to cover the whole of the United States. At the same time the need of such special inquiries limited at the outset to selected areas was strongly emphasized.

It was assumed that the next enumeration of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes will be planned in the same manner as that of 1904. In other

words, there may be expected from it a full account of the movement of the institutional population during 1910, including the number present at the beginning of the year, the number admitted or committed, the number discharged, transferred or who have died during the year, together with the usual population facts so far as obtainable concerning the individual. While the resulting statistics will not serve adequately as a quantitative measurement of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes of population, they should be productive of much valuable information and be an improvement upon those of earlier years. The increasing interest shown by the conference in census reports upon the special classes is very evident, and can doubtless be attributed in part to the educational work of the committee on statistics.

Dr. Lee K. Frankel's lucid paper on various phases of industrial insurance was listened to with keen interest and provoked a lively discussion. Dr. Frankel's advent as manager of the industrial department of a large insurance company foreshadows a new departure in several directions in ways of conducting this business. An active insurance campaign against disease, and the employment of insurance agents in social work for the ultimate improvement of conditions under which people live and labor are assuredly innovations, but none the less welcome on that account. For a long time to come industrial insurance, carried on as a private enterprise, will doubtless constitute the chief safeguard against economic stress for a vast proportion of the population. Dr. Frankel's paper will aid to clear the air, remove some popular prejudices, and counteract unsound agitation for old age pensions and the like.

Homer Folks spoke on statistics relating to children, pointing out what we need to know and the limitations imposed upon existing agencies when endeavoring to collect some desired information. He emphasized the fact, which looms large upon the horizon of every investigator, that so long as societies dealing with dependent and neglected children do not record all that

they themselves should know about their immediate charges, it is useless to expect a state or federal agency to produce adequate statistics on the subject.

Prof. Thomas J. Riley of the University of Missouri gave a most timely paper on statistics of public outdoor relief, a subject to which he recently has given much study. While Professor Riley's inquiry did not yield much that could be put into statistical form, it enabled him to make a much needed presentation of the shortcomings of local authorities in recording facts they need to know concerning their own administration of public outdoor relief, and to show that until the local authorities do better, general statistical material will not be available. An instructive discussion followed in which several representatives of different state boards of charities took part. There are as yet only a very few states in which adequate statistical reports are made upon public outdoor relief, Indiana perhaps furnishing the most notable example of excellent work in this respect. That lack of such reports leads not only to unnecessarily heavy outlays for outdoor relief, but is socially disastrous because it directly fosters dependence was strikingly illustrated by one speaker by means of charts and diagrams which, it is hoped, will be made available to the public. There seemed to be a consensus of opinion that two things are needed before states can make satisfactory statistical statements concerning public outdoor relief: Improved legislation in regard to the duties and powers of the authorities who administer outdoor relief locally, and specific authority to state boards of charity to demand from local officials complete reports of all their doings. The remarkable results achieved by this means in a state like Indiana are a matter of common knowledge.

For three successive years the committee has presented different specimen blanks for the use of public and private agencies as a means towards amplifying and unifying different classes of statistical material. This year no new schedule was presented. It seemed wise to make larger efforts to secure the general adop-

tion of those already recommended by the conference before suggesting other schedules.

LAW BREAKERS

ORLANDO F. LEWIS

The committee on law breakers (the new name given to the committee formerly called prison and prison administration), held two sessions. Bishop Samuel Fallows, D. D., of Chicago, chairman, made the statement in his report that the serious crimes against society in this country are not increasing, in spite of the inrush of foreign born people. The so-called increase is due to the fact that misdemeanors are multiplying, because of the multiplication of petty laws enacted both in the states and foreign municipalities. The committee report cited as examples expectoration on the sidewalks, "flipping" street cars, giving or receiving transfers in some cities, "flipping" pennies, buying and selling cigarettes. The adoption of adult probation laws similar to those now enforced in eleven states, the more general adoption of the indeterminate sentence, and its extension to misdemeanants were recommended. The committee reported the necessity of some systematic relief for the needy relatives of convicts, out of the latter's earnings.

Dr. Walter Lindley, president of the Board of Trustees, of Whittier State School, Los Angeles, presented a carefully prepared paper containing the results of his visits to European reformatories. At the general session, Dr. Katharine Bement Davis, superintendent of the New York State Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y., reported on her work with women at the reformatory. She outlined the kinds of physical labor required of the inmates, but more than willingly done by them, and contended that open air exercise in the form of useful industry is of great practical value in reforming wayward girls. She cited as instances the laying of concrete walks, the building of stairways, the harvesting of ice, and similar employments, and asked why, if women

can do these things, and find pleasure in them, such occupations should not be demanded from male prisoners in penal institutions. Miss Davis incidentally received as introduction a well-deserved eulogy from President Bicknell because of her successful participation in the relief work at Syracuse after the earthquake.¹

At the section meeting on Monday morning, Frank E. Wade of Buffalo, N. Y., a member of the State Probation Commission, pointed out the change of attitude in the state in its legislation for children, from mere protection of property to those constructive processes for the children's welfare. He claimed that most of the juvenile offences are due to the parents, and that the child problem can never be solved until corrective influences are applied to parents. Mr. Wade would give the juvenile courts exclusive jurisdiction in all cases in which children, or parents who contribute to the delinquency of their children, are concerned.

The topic of contributory delinquency developed in the discussion of Mr. Wade's paper, graphic illustrations being given by Mr. Burden of Illinois.

Although only two sessions were devoted to the committee on law breakers, the program contained a number of topics which might well have fitted into this section. Among them were juvenile courts, and Why Children Play Truant, discussed in the children's section, and The Relation of the Alien to the Administration of Civil and Criminal Law, and Experiences with Immigrants in the Police Court, with which the section on immigrants dealt. In fact, in changing the title of the committee to the committee on law breakers, the tendency seems to have been to depart from the more definite treatment of penology and prison reform.

Of direct interest to this section was the vote of the conference to co-operate with the American committee having charge of the preparations for the International Prison Congress, to be held in Washington, in October, 1910.

¹ Dr. Davis fully described her work at Syracuse in THE SURVEY for April 3. Copies may be obtained at 25 cents.

DEFECTIVES

J. M. MURDOCH

The most important considerations before the section on defectives were the importance of special ungraded classes for abnormal children in the public schools; the necessity of clinics where juvenile court officers, charitable organizations caring for children, and teachers may obtain expert advice in regard to the mental condition of abnormal children; the importance of such clinics in order to differentiate between those children who are simply backward on account of some temporary condition or some remediable physical defect, and those who being inherently feeble-minded should be sent to an institution for the feeble-minded; and the great need of larger provision for the permanent care of all the feeble-minded.

Quarantine for the feeble-minded—not for forty days but for life—was the keynote of the committee's report, it being stated that quarantine of the mental defective for life will prevent more misery, pauperism, degeneracy and crime and do more for the upbuilding of the race than any other measure within the power of man.

The exhibit of scientific methods of testing and measuring defective intellects and faculties, including the ergograph, which tests brain fatigue, and the psychometer, to detect emotional disturbances, demonstrated by Henry H. Goddard, Ph. D., and his able assistant, Miss Bell, of the New Jersey Training School, Vineland, N. J., was a revelation to many and one of the very interesting features of the conference.

A series of charts, prepared from the history of 8,000 feeble-minded persons by Dr. Goddard, graphically illustrated the effect of the arrest of mental development upon the body. Another series of charts illustrating the importance of heredity in the causation of feeble-mindedness was of great interest and brought strikingly before the conference the importance of mental defect, insanity, epilepsy, alcoholism, tuberculosis and general ill-health as causative factors in the etiology of feeble-mindedness.

Franklin B. Kirkbride made an interesting report of the progress being made in the development of Letchworth Village, to provide for the epileptic and feeble-minded in the southeast district of the state of New York. The commission has acquired a two thousand acre tract of land in Rockland county, three miles west of the Hudson and thirty-seven miles by water from the Battery, New York city. With the assistance of the state architect and engineer, very complete plans for the development of the property, including water supply, sewage system, and buildings to provide for an ultimate population of 3,000 persons, have been prepared. They will be carried on to completion as rapidly as the condition of the state treasury will permit. The title, Letchworth Village, is given in recognition of the many and distinguished services of William Pryor Letchworth, of Portage, to the state and of his efforts in behalf of its defective wards.

The present plan for the care of defectives in New York is that the Syracuse School for the Feeble-Minded shall be used for feeble-minded girls only, that the Newark asylum shall treat all feeble-minded women and children other than the school cases, that the Rome asylum shall care for all custodial feeble-minded men and boys and also have a school department for feeble-minded boys of the school age, and that Craig Colony shall accommodate all epileptics who are not insane. These four institutions will care for all the feeble-minded and epileptic from all parts of New York except the territory of Greater New York and surrounding counties, which will be accommodated by Letchworth Village.

Progress in the Care of the Insane was the subject of an excellent paper by Frank B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass. Mr. Sanborn spoke approvingly of the tendency toward the elimination of the male attendant and his replacement by women nurses throughout the hospitals for the insane; the treatment of each patient as a distinct individual rather than as a member of a class; the value of occupation and the elimination of restraint, both mechanical and chemical.

Dr. Thomas C. Fitzsimmons, superintendent of the Pennsylvania State Hospital for the Criminal Insane, gave an interesting account of the hospital for the criminal insane now being constructed by Pennsylvania in the northeastern part of Pennsylvania, at Farview.

An interesting session of the committee on defectives was devoted to the subject of the prevention of blindness. George A. Hubbell, executive secretary of the special committee on the prevention of blindness, New York Association of the Blind, New York, pointed out the fact that of over 64,000 blind in the United States 7,000 are needlessly blind due to ophthalmia neonatorum, infection at birth.

Miss Lucy Wright and Miss Brannock, both of the Eye and Ear Hospital, Boston, gave an interesting account of the special ward for the treatment of ophthalmia neonatorum in the hospital with which they are connected, and of the educational work being carried on in Boston to compel physicians and midwives to treat the eyes of all new born babes with prophylactic silver solution, which is an absolute preventive of this great cause of blindness.

PRESS AND PUBLICITY

H. WIRT STEELE

Speaking of the work of the committee on press and publicity, the retiring president, Mr. Bicknell, said:

The gospel of wholesome and helpful publicity has never been uttered in a National Conference of Charities and Correction more clearly or impressively than in the meeting devoted to the subject of publicity on Tuesday evening. Dr. Albert Shaw, in his illuminating and suggestive address, performed a service of the greatest value to all engaged in the attempt to interest and enlist the public in behalf of progressive charitable efforts. This address, in fact, if printed in compact form might well serve as a text book on publicity for charitable agencies.

Especially worthy of note was the comment of other speakers of the evening upon the necessity for removing the atmosphere of secrecy and mystery which too often envelops the work of a charitable institution.

There were other notes too upon which emphasis was laid, notably in relation to publicity in public health work.

John A. Kingsbury, assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, insisted that right publicity for his work differed in only one respect from proper and effective commercial advertising,—it had to tell the truth, it must be moral. He would use any kind of method for securing publicity that gets results, and considers nothing that does get results as undignified or unrefined. This was the extreme view, however, the opposite position having been taken by Charles W. Birtwell, general secretary of the Children's Aid Society of Boston, who would temper his publicity so as not to offend the finer sensibilities of his supporters or his wards.

Francis H. McLean, national field secretary for charity organization extension, spoke particularly on right publicity in the newspapers. As a one-time newspaper man himself, he believed that in most cities but a beginning has been made. The trouble is that both newspaper men and charity organization workers have failed to realize sufficiently that the latter's work not only deals with the pathetic in life, but with every other human emotion and with every important interest in life.

About every department of a paper, excepting the stock quotation and the fashion notes at one time or another will find something of interest in the charity organization field. Above all else, then, the aim should always be variation, novelty. Excepting for special appeals, never write the same way or from the same angle. Wrong publicity is of the kind which would kill itself by too much pepper.

As the executive officer of a board of commissioners of public charities, which has had difficulties in its efforts to keep the institutions of the state of Illinois out of the hands of party politicians, William C. Graves sounded the keynote of frankness and sincerity in proper publicity, especially as it relates to institutional management.

The use of the illustration and development of "social photography" attracted much attention, both at the general session of the committee and at its sectional meeting. At the former, Frederick D. Greene, assistant general agent of

the New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, used the stereopticon to illustrate what he considered right publicity in relation to relief work, showing how the camera could be made effective in the raising of money for charitable uses. Lewis W. Hine, staff photographer of THE SURVEY, who has made many pictures in connection with the Pittsburgh Survey and of child labor conditions and other social ills through the South, illustrated an address on the question, Does Advertising Pay? before the section meeting Wednesday morning. He maintains that the question is answered for the social worker as conclusively as it is for the commercial advertiser.

Mr. Hine has begun to make a photographic record of the life of the modern toiler in the great industries of this country and of tenement dwellers in American cities, that is comparable with the work of E. S. Curtis in his photographic history of the American Indian. "The value of such records to the present and future generations," said the speaker, "can be conceived. They will do more for the education of the people than many volumes of written history and description, because it is one of the functions of social work to educate half of society as to how the other half lives, and so to secure remedies for social ills."

This year the committee on press and publicity sought to differentiate between the kinds of stories needed, to tell of the work of various lines of charitable effort. It sought to speak also to the publicist through the publicist as to his opportunity and responsibility, and one other item of publicity, the annual report, was analyzed rather minutely. The committee was continued for another year that it may have an opportunity to complete its program of publicity.

FAMILIES AND NEIGHBORHOODS

ROBERT A. WOODS

As this section began a new stage in its history under a new double name, in the two branches of discussion much

attention was given to the general question of the place of the family and of the neighborhood in the structure and growth of the community. This was more necessary and helpful as the committee followed its instructions to give special emphasis to the positive, reconstructive aspects of local social service.

The opening paper was read by Joseph Lee of Boston. Mr. Lee suggested that the family is not only the fundamental social unit, without which there could be no social values whatever; but, so far as human kind is concerned it antedates the individual. He protested against any scheme of social betterment which would tend to its disintegration, or disregard its inherent spiritual qualities. School feeding, radical as that seems to be, is in reality not half radical enough. The home must be so far rehabilitated that the child can be properly cared for within its shelter. The community, instead of taking away the functions of the family, must rather educate the home makers to the point of the efficient fulfillment of their function.

Mr. Bernheimer of the University Settlement, New York, stated clearly the tendency of American life, reinforced too often by our social service institutions, to draw away children of immigrant peoples from sympathy with and loyalty to their parents. He urged that we do increased work for immigrant parents; and so far as possible that we carry them along educationally with the children.

Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League, pointed out the evil effects of detaching young girls from the family in the formative period of their lives and placing them in industries where they are subjected to undue physical and moral strain. She advocated the use of the adolescent years to fit them for their proper life-long service as wives and mothers.

Miss Mary McDowell of Chicago showed the ruinous effect on both personal and family life of securing economy of production by creating a reserve force of casually employed laborers, and by reducing the standard of wages through substituting women even in those parts of the industry particularly injurious to their physical and moral nature.

Mrs. Simkhovitch of New York pointed out the possibilities of the case method as developed by charity organization, but applied to families in economic levels above the poverty line. She suggested the employment of specialists who would bring to the re-enforcement of a group of families who have not yet yielded to the adverse conditions by which they are surrounded, all available private and public resources.

Miss Richmond of Philadelphia presented five important points of contact between social work and public school education,—irregular attendance of school children; premature employment; improper and under-feeding; unwise start in first going to work; construction and development of special ability, to which particular attention should be given.

The writer, following up Mr. Lee's cue, suggested that the neighborhood antedated the family, and in reality created a grouping which, by its protective and stimulating influence, made the development of the family possible. The neighborhood is the public theater of life to a majority of men, to nearly all women, and to all children. The neighborhood as a social unit is large enough to include in essence all the human problems of the city and nation, but small enough to be intelligible to and manageable by average citizens. On the good neighborhood type of good citizenship the permanent success of all social progress depends.

Prof. Graham Taylor of Chicago showed that, while the neighborhood is the unit in which the social worker must organically establish his influence for better things, it is a nascent unit, and must be brought into cohesion with all the other neighborhoods of the city for large measures of civic progress. He gave a stirring account of a twelve years' record of successful local and political campaigns through which his ward has sent a succession of reponsible local citizens to the city council. Such representation has resulted in many important improvements in the ward; and in the establishment of a strong and real sense of citizenship in the minds and hearts of the people. This is the most successful instance in this country of social service in a crowded and alien tenement

district leading to concrete municipal reform.

John R. Howard, Jr., of Buffalo followed Professor Taylor and explained convincingly how one phase after another of the day's work for a better neighborhood compels the social worker to resort to the power of citizenship.

Paul U. Kellogg drew many pointed lessons from the Pittsburgh Survey to show how, on the one hand, bad sanitary conditions, gravely deficient housing equipment, and low standards of life generally, tended to become massed and localized together in the Painter's Rows and Skunk Hollows; and, on the other hand, how such neighborhoods are a direct and constant source of danger to the city as a whole. That the city as a whole is coming to consciousness and organizing for social defence and progress is shown, he feels, by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission and the Boston 1915 movement.

Francis H. McLean of the Field Department, New York Charity Organization Society, emphasized the necessity of the neighborhood worker's being intimately in and of the neighborhood. He felt that the lack of proper opportunities for neighborhood recreation was the greatest social need of the smaller cities.

Prof. Liberty H. Bailey of Cornell University found the greatest disability of country neighborhoods in their lack of social and economic organization. He felt that better things must come from the awakened consciousness of the country itself rather than through city managed philanthropies. Improvement is to be expected through the increase of population; the extension of varied forms of modern communication; the inevitable necessity for co-operation and organization for economic purposes; the extension of education and recreation. Political institutions should be reorganized so as to further community life rather than divide it, as at present; and the church, the school, the library and the press must be made more effective.

John C. Campbell of Demarest, Georgia, who is making an investigation for the Russell Sage Foundation of work done among the white people of the Southern mountains, gave a clear and appealing story of conditions, based on

thorough and carefully acquired information. He advocated better and more centralized schools, wherein young men could be taught the mountain resources and their proper exploitation; and where girls might receive instruction in cooking, nursing and other home arts, carried on under the extreme restrictions incident to the region. He suggested turning over as rapidly as possible to local organizations and local administration, institutions founded under northern auspices; that southern spirit and southern experience be more fully used.

Dr. Luther H. Gulick of New York treated the problem of recreation and showed that we tend to be affiliated on the basis of leisure-time interests, and brought out the consequent value that every form of recreation has in bringing people into spontaneous social relationships. A great deal of the paucity of recreative games in immigrant neighborhoods is due to the fact that the play spirit lives only in the well organized and unified community. There are few universal games, with the result that in mixed communities nationally characteristic forms of play and skill are lost, and only crude amusements persist. Dr. Gulick urged that the city extend the use of its play resources by advertising.

Edward J. Ward of Rochester described graphically what had been done in the school play centers of that city. Out of the movement had grown seventeen adult men's clubs beside numerous organizations for women, girls, boys and children. In securing the use of public buildings for the people Mr. Ward urged that the work be started in the well-to-do districts, and that public moneys be used in order that the stigma of a charity should not become attached to the movement.

Graham R. Taylor of Chicago traced the development of the Chicago playground system from its beginnings twelve years ago, when one thousand dollars was appropriated, until the present with eleven million dollars invested in property and four hundred thousand dollars spent yearly for maintenance.

In general the section advocated nothing short of far-reaching elimination of tendencies working toward the disintegration of the family and the neighbor-

hood. It insisted that just as when the family is considerably undermined, there is the greater need of the precise work which will strengthen all family ties; so the disappearance of the neighborhood relationship demands not less of distinctive neighborhood effort but more. A stimulating social network of neighborhood forces must be built up and maintained, so thorough that even a fluctuating population must find itself involved and kept human. This would enable the families more fully to meet the responsibilities which await them in the better neighborhoods to which they move as they become industrially more efficient.

HEALTH AND SANITATION

JOHN S. FULTON, M. D.

The Committee on Health and Sanitation furnished the program for the last general session of the conference on Wednesday evening, June 16. Roy Smith Wallace, in an address on the responsibilities and opportunities of health officials, made effective use of the best American examples, calling attention to the wide intervals between them and the sanitary organizations which are merely perfunctory or worse. He brought out the strong contrast between the rich stores of medical information available, and the small amount actually employed in the service of public health. He attributed the shortcomings of sanitary government, in part, to vicious politics, but chiefly to the lack of special training for public hygiene. Mr. Wallace thinks the outlook, in this latter regard, is encouraging; the larger promise he finds in popular education, especially of children in the public schools.

Dr. Luther H. Gulick spoke on private philanthropy and municipal administration. Dr. Gulick believes that private philanthropy should be a kind of forerunner of municipal government in certain welfare activities, developing the indications by research and experiment, demonstrating next steps, at first as accessory, but later as integral functions of government. The strategy is, as the speaker vividly put it, to gear the experiment to some important shaft, so that success may give it a permanent place

in the administrative mechanism. Dr. Gulick showed that these relations of philanthropic effort occur repeatedly in the history of city government, but his instances of purposeful use of this method were modern ones, connected with the remarkable development of the playground movement in recent years, and with the study of retardation in the public schools.

Dr. G. W. Goler gave a stereopticon lecture entitled Milk for Babies.

On Monday afternoon, June 14, the section discussed social service in its medical relations. Dr. Charles P. Emerson, of Clifton Springs, N. Y., reviewed the work originated by him and Miss Helen Pendleton at Johns Hopkins Hospital, in 1901, and Miss G. L. Pelton described the similar work developed by herself and Dr. Richard Cabot at the Massachusetts General Hospital. Other speakers were Miss Burleigh of Boston, Miss Brannick, of Boston, Miss Pendleton, of Pittsburgh, Miss Ida Cannon, of Boston, Rev. Mr. Brittain, of St. Louis, Alexander Proudfit, of New York, and John M. Glenn, of New York. A special committee was elected to consider the advisability of organizing this in-

teresting kind of work. This committee reported that formal organization is not advisable at this time, but recommended that a larger committee should be authorized to assemble information on the subject and present a report at the next conference in St. Louis.

At the Tuesday evening session Rev. William Friedman of Denver made a strong argument against the bad practice of sending advanced consumptives away from home. A lively discussion naturally drifted toward the means of caring for consumptives at or near their homes.

At the Wednesday morning session the question of Institution Dietetics was discussed. Dr. C. F. Langworthy, expert in nutrition, of the United States Department of Agriculture, gave an account of his studies of the dietaries of charitable institutions in Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington. Dr. Herbert Maxon King described the progress in scientific feeding of consumptives at Loomis Sanatorium, as carried on by a corps of trained dietitians under medical supervision.

Accounts of the children's section and of the Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children will appear in next week's issue of THE SURVEY.

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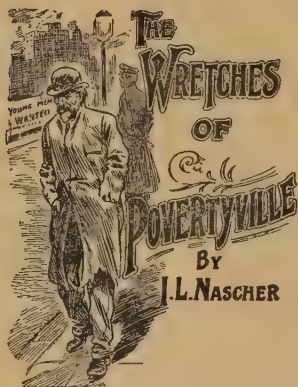
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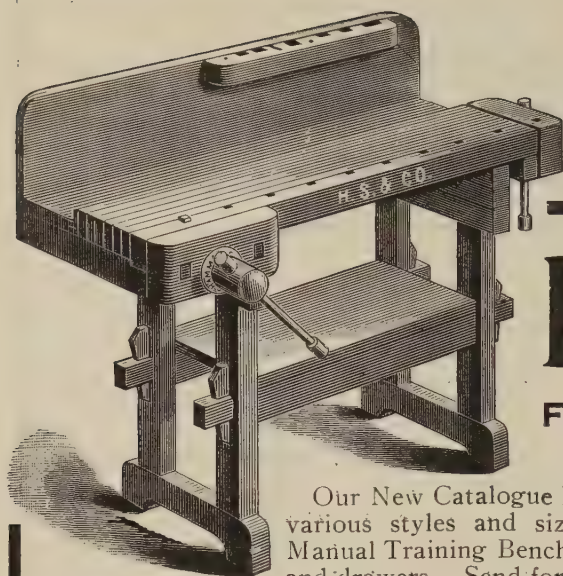
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE NORMAL AND THE IDEAL

The social economist is sometimes confused with the Utopian. They are, however, very distinct types of reformers. The Utopian dreams of an ideal. The social economist seeks to establish the normal. The one fixes his gaze upon an imaginary nowhere. The other is concerned with actual communities of human beings. The one is a perfectionist, measuring the distance between our best but still imperfect humanity and a goal which he discerns with prophetic eye. The other is a normalist, measuring the distance between the recognized standards of today and the deplorable failure of multitudes to attain those standards. The Utopian would hold mankind responsible for future progress. The economist would press the more immediate responsibility for removing the obstacles which prevent so large a number from sharing in the progress already achieved. The Utopian arrives at his destination by a bold flight of the imagination, and secures his paradise by insisting upon isolation or some other arbitrary device. The economist has no such short cuts. He recognizes that he must find out about abnormal conditions and apply the remedies for them where they lie. Disease, ignorance, poverty, overcrowding, undernourishment, intemperance, overwork, irregularity of employment, monopoly, exploitation, and whatever besides prevents any single individual, and still more any large number, from living up to the normal standards of the twentieth century, are the subject matter of his agonizing dreams and of his vigilant watch.

The poverty of our language denies us an appropriate word for the precise point of view which we are attempting to present. We have searched diligently but in vain for the word that will express, better than "normalist," the conception of the social worker who is primarily concerned not with lifting humanity to a higher level, but with eradicating the maladjustments, the abnormalities, the needless inequalities, which prevent our realizing our own reasonable standards. The employment of children of tender years is no part of the present standards of any intelligent American community. It is no part of the standards of stockholders in cotton mills, coal mines, or glass works. Yet because American communities and stockholders have not taken the trouble or displayed the ingenuity essential to give effect to their standards, they remain responsible for a great evil. There is a gulf between our knowledge, even our emotional appreciation, of the objections to child labor under the conditions of modern industry, and our accomplishment. As a result of this disparity we permit a race of ex-

ploited children, physically blighted, mentally dwarfed, spiritually embittered. Effective child labor laws are, therefore, in the program of social work.

It is no part of our standards that there should be a maladjustment between work and workers, that laborers should be idle merely because they do not have reliable information concerning an existing demand for the very kind of work which they are able and willing to do. It is an obvious undertaking, therefore, for the social economist to create some effective sort of employment exchange, though the Utopian would expect so simple a matter to take care of itself.

The normalist program is one of moderation and reasonableness. It bases its demands upon solid, ascertainable facts and verifiable evidence. Where expert advice is appropriate it follows the expert, and where professional opinion is involved it summons professional co-operation. Experts and distinguished representatives of the professions respond enthusiastically for the reason that what is proposed to them is merely that the standards already well recognized by themselves shall become universal, and that possibilities for the common good, of which they are themselves well aware, shall become realities through the co-operation of social forces which they have perhaps heretofore sought in vain to bring into action. Although a program of reason and moderation, normalism is not a program of compromise or opportunism. Whether action is to be taken is in each case a question of evidence. What action is to be taken is a matter of judgment. Given, however, a clear case in which injustice, hardship, or deprivation results from a failure in the social mechanism by which our social standards fail of realization, and the path of the reformer is clear. Easy-going optimism and paralyzing pessimism are equally beside the mark. It is no time for concessions to vested interests or to ancient traditions or to blind prejudices. The appropriate remedy should be applied. The strong who know and enjoy the normal standards should share them. If the law is the instrument which lies nearest at hand, the law should be invoked. If agitation and popular education give greater promise of results they should be undertaken. If private relief measures are indicated, they should be initiated and pressed upon the favorable consideration of the public. If some new institution is requisite, it should be established. Legislation, social movements, philanthropic enterprises, education, voluntary changes in industrial or commercial methods, are all legitimate, and probably not the only, means of diffusing throughout society the normal standards which have been already attained by intellectual and moral progress. The social economist is deeply concerned in this process.

THE COMMON WELFARE

ALMS RECEIVING

LICENSED IN BOSTON

The Massachusetts Legislature, on the last day of its session, enacted a most surprising and reactionary law. It provides that the Board of Overseers of the Poor, with the approval of the police commissioner as to times and places, may license the receiving of alms in public places or, in other words, on the streets, parks and playgrounds of Boston. The bill was introduced at the last moment by the Salvation Army. It was referred to the next General Court by the committee to which it had been sent, but was substituted in the House, killed in the Senate, revived and passed. The oratory on the subject in the Senate was worthy of a grammar school debate. The opponents offered substantial arguments as to the unusual nature of the measure but its supporters said that, although the Senate was composed of busy men, they should step aside for the work of God. So, if it please the overseers of the poor and the police commissioner, Boston may enjoy the spectacle of bebadged alms receivers on her streets and in her public places. This will be particularly gratifying to a community which has put no small effort into an attempt to secure adequate and proper methods of poor relief through public and private agencies, without the necessity of public begging. It is not the intention of the bill, so its supporters say, that hoboos shall be licensed. It would seem, however, that others are to be licensed to beg for them and for others who are willing to accept a handout of a particular kind. But the law does not specify against hoboos or other individuals and the opponents of the bill are hopeful that the licensing powers may, in their wisdom, see fit to license those for whom the money is supposed to be intended as well as those who would secure it for others. If the custom of re-

ceiving alms in public places is to be established, it will be just as well to have the money go direct to those for whom it is intended as to have it go through other and possibly non-accounting hands.

BOSTON'S FINANCE

COMMISSION HONORED

It was a notable gathering that met in Boston last week under the auspices of the Committee of One Hundred to do honor to the first finance commission. About three hundred citizens, on perhaps the hottest night of the year, by their presence attested their appreciation of the work of the commission. This is the first public demonstration of the kind, as it has been the desire of the commission that the action of the Legislature on the charter bill should be known before tribute was paid. The entire occasion, both through speaking and through manifestations of enthusiastic interest, speaks well for the ultimate accomplishment of the recommendations of the commission. There was not a dissenting vote against full support of plan number two, as outlined in THE SURVEY for June 12. Democrats, republicans, mugwumps and all were united. It is interesting to note in this connection that ex-Mayor FitzGerald has come out in support of plan two. His recognition of the fact that he would stand no chance in a convention of his own party is one of the most hopeful signs of the times.

The Committee of One Hundred is organizing a definite campaign in support of plan two at the polls. Robert J. Bottomly, who has served effectively as a volunteer secretary, has been employed for the referendum campaign. Ward committees, a campaign of newspaper publicity, public addresses and everything that will tend towards a general understanding of the value of nonpartisanship in municipal affairs will be put under way.

The dinner to the finance commission, arranged for several days before, fortunately came just in time to enable those present to greet the permanent commission, which was on the day of the banquet sworn into office. The new commission, named only the day before by Governor Draper, consists of John A. Sullivan, member of the former commission, chairman; John F. Moors, member of the old commission; Charles P. Curtis, lawyer; Francis N. Balch, lawyer, and Geoffrey B. Lehy, president Boston City Club. These appointments are well received. The members have all held positions of trust in public and private life and they are believers in the possibility of decent government. It is a body of men which will be of great assistance to any good mayor and that will be equally troublesome to a bad mayor.

PROGRESS IN PITTSBURGH

The Pittsburgh Civic Commission has undertaken the improvement of conditions and the eradication of some of the evils reported by the Pittsburgh Survey. Its first work was to organize fourteen committees dealing with different departments of municipal affairs. This has meant the enlisting of one hundred men representing employer and employes, American and immigrant. The completion of this work of organization was marked by a committeemen's dinner on June 17. The guests of honor were Mayor Magee and J. Horace McFarland, president of the American Civic Association. President English outlined in detail to the committeemen the plans of the commission. Mayor Magee pledged the support of the city administration, and gave recognition to the practical and timely policies which the commission has adopted. Mr. McFarland, in welcoming into the national organization this newest of civic associations, said:

I want to take this opportunity to say that I regard this event as of the utmost significance, not only to Pittsburgh, but to the general cause of city betterment throughout the country. To have succeeded, after the sharp slap of the Survey, in making your people blanket their annoyance; and to have

then caused them to join with you to the large extent you have in planning to remedy the difficulties; to have taken hold of a city administration supposed to be inimical and pledged it as you have to the work—are achievements of which any man may well be proud, and I congratulate you most heartily upon them.

While the commission has been organizing its one hundred men in fourteen committees, definite work has also been taken up. The district improvements committee has planned and carried out with the city departments a remarkably successful clean city day. This is not an isolated spasmodic effort but the beginning of a continuous campaign to enlist private citizens in co-operating with the city in its new rubbish collection system. Following the clean city day, neighborhood improvement associations will be organized throughout Pittsburgh for making rubbish collection efficient and for promoting other means for cleaning and beautifying the city. In this first project of the commission a larger number and greater variety of factors have been enlisted than in any civic enterprise hitherto launched in Pittsburgh. Street and steam railroads, department stores, team owners, women's clubs, labor unions, commercial and civic organizations, and the bureaus of health, police, highways and sewers, and fire.

Preliminary steps have been taken looking toward a comprehensive city plan. Such a plan is to include street and park systems, rapid transit, freight terminals, water supply, sewage disposal, flood prevention, housing and municipal art. The commission will seek to co-ordinate what is being done by city bureaus and public organizations, and leading up to the development of a thoroughly formulated and complete plan is at present in consultation with outside experts. The commission will make city planning its first large undertaking in view of the widespread demand for this kind of improvement. Moreover, the city administration is ready to work on the physical betterment of the city, and the transit situation is acute.

Further, the housing committee of the commission is conducting investigations and preparing plans for sanitary dwellings for workmen in the mill towns.

The committee on education is to open the public schools as social centers and for lecture courses in the fall. The committee on lower courts of justice is taking up the new adult probation and parole laws of Pennsylvania and will also bring to the city outside experts on juvenile delinquency to confer with local judges on the problems of the juvenile court.

The commission has thus made a beginning by completing its organization, by entering upon policies which could be most quickly formulated, and by enlisting the whole city in the undertaking.

RE-ELECTION OF JUDGE MACK

The re-election of Judge Julian W. Mack to the circuit bench of Cook county, Illinois, is a credit to Chicago and a matter for national congratulation. This result was expected, of course, by all who know Judge Mack and his distinguished abilities and services. But in view of the powerful combination against him, due principally either to unreasoning prejudice, or to the pressure of special interests which could not hope for special consideration at his hands, it is creditable to the intelligence and public spirit of his fellow citizens that he was elected by such a round majority of votes.

The attack upon his juvenile court record was as base as it was baseless. On that score his re-election emphatically maintains his own high standard of the impartiality and authority of that court. His courageous personal attitude against the exploitation and persecution of immigrants on racial and political grounds is greatly to his credit in the judgment of all right-minded people. And yet the stand he took with others against the extradition of Rudowitz was among the objections urged against him in the effort to arouse blind prejudice. The injunction in a labor case issued by Judge Mack was made the ground for an appeal to working men to vote against him by the Chicago Federation of Labor. Despite the fact of Judge Mack's democratic impartiality and courage on the bench, in which working people had every reason to trust, their prejudice against any use



JUDGE JULIAN W. MACK.

of the injunction in cases growing out of strikes led their leaders to pronounce against him. On this point Prof. Ernst Freund of the University of Chicago Law School speaks with recognized authority in affirming that Judge Mack, "believing that peaceful persuasion is not contrary to law, has been very particular to eliminate from the few injunctions that he has issued any words that might have seemed to prohibit such persuasion." And he truly adds: "Anyone who knows Judge Mack must feel convinced that he would aid any class of people, as far as lay in his power, in their legitimate and peaceful efforts to obtain and maintain proper living conditions, and that he would be willing to concede to organized labor fullest liberty of action that is compatible with law and order." This view must have prevailed even among workingmen voters or Judge Mack could not have received such a majority at the polls.

Graduated from the Harvard Law School in 1887 at the head of his class, with the highest scholarship record ever made there before or since, he received the Parker Fellowship on which he spent three years in further study at the Uni-

versities of Berlin and Leipzig. With such a foundation and the noteworthy reputation built upon it both at the bar and on the bench it is all the more notable that Judge Mack entered with so much devotion and enthusiasm upon the duties of Juvenile Court judge. It is a further attestation of the confidence in which he is held that his assignment to the Appellate Court which was about to be made when he accepted the appointment to the Juvenile Court has been consummated since his recent re-election. A most competent legal authority has also pointed out the fact that a combination such as Judge Mack possesses is not often to be found on the bench. For while an expert in the law of negotiable paper and of trusts which involve a profound appreciation of commercial and property interests, he has had a large share in framing and administering the law relating to child labor and juvenile delinquency. While doing his most notable work in chancery where business judgment and sagacity are requisite, he was most successful in the Juvenile Court where success is impossible without the broadest human sympathies. Those who share the community of social, civic and philanthropic interests are indeed proud to have in their fellowship such a man and such a judge.

CHICAGO'S BABY CAMPAIGN

A systematic effort has been organized in Chicago to reduce the heavy summer death rate among small children in the congested districts. It is also expected that the campaign will help materially establish a firmer basis of physique for future growth.

The recent agitation concerning underfed school children called public attention to the futility of attempting to educate children whose home economy did not supply food of sufficient quantity or of proper quality to create the necessary physical basis. The figures published by the Board of Education resulted in a public demand which gave Chicago a staff of forty school nurses, paid by the city but under the direction of the Visiting Nurse Association. The new move-

ment goes a step farther back in the life of the child. It was often found too late to try to arrest the deterioration produced by these bad conditions at the age of entrance into school. The nurse's help should have come much earlier.

The infant welfare committee has been formed to bridge this deficiency. It is seeking to co-ordinate the work of all the agencies watching over the interests of children. Dr. Evans, the commissioner of health, is the chairman, and the membership list includes such representative names as Sherman C. Kingsley, superintendent of the United Charities, Dr. Isaac A. Abt, of the Milk Commission of Chicago, Miss Harriet Fulmer of the Visiting Nurse Association, Bishop Paul P. Rhode and Dean Walter T. Sumner.

It is felt that the whole force of school nurses should have been transferred to the work of saving the babies and reducing the high death rate of the summer months. While the commissioner of health was ready for such a course the council's appropriation had not made it possible. Through the generosity of the McCormick family, however, the United Charities has added five nurses to the staff of the Visiting Nurses Association who are to give their whole time to finding and succoring sick babies. The various distributing stations of the Milk Commission will be centers from which they will work. Every case of sickness reported to these stations or known through application for the milk will be visited; and in localities where the nurses are not able to cope with the work, visiting housekeepers speaking the foreign language will do follow-up work and under the direction of the nurses correct wrong home conditions.

The fresh air hospital tents for sick babies which the Relief and Aid Society (now the United Charities) has conducted for four summers will again be in operation and their number increased to five. Undoubtedly their efficiency will be greatly heightened by the follow-up work of the babies nurses. It is hoped, furthermore, that it will be found possible to apply the same follow-up treatment to all cases going to the great Lin-

coln Park Sanatorium of the *Daily News* and the La Rabida Sanitarium in Jackson Park.

Members of the Chicago Medical Society and the Pediatric Society have endorsed the movement and a corps of physicians has been organized to respond to requests for lectures to mothers. Up to the present time the Board of Education has advanced objections to allowing the use of the school buildings for these lectures.

Other efforts are working side by side with the United Charities program. The Department of Health has just published an attractive card of instructions to mothers on the summer care of children, very much like the Brooklyn card, and promises to spend at least \$5,000 in supplementing the work of the nurses in the more needy districts. It is not yet decided whether this shall be done by adding more nurses or by engaging physicians.

A committee of which Mrs. Charles Henrotin is chairman has put a traveling exhibit of the summer care of children in the field in charge of a trained nurse who demonstrates and lectures. This exhibit is going the round of the settlements. Part of the program is a stereopticon lecture illustrating the magnitude of the yearly slaughter of innocents, the general care of infants and the remedial agencies for the sick existing in the city.

The School of Domestic Arts and Science is also helping by providing a course of ten lectures on child hygiene with special reference to cooking for young children and nursing mothers.

BACKWARD, TRUANT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN

The child helping people are insatiable convention-goers. They are not content with the National Conference of Charities and Correction which directly devotes forty per cent of its program to children's work, and indirectly a large part of the remaining sixty per cent to the same subject; but they have the annual conference of the American Playground Association, the annual conference of people engaged in work for feeble-minded children and the National

Conference on The Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children. At the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Buffalo, there was a very interesting, impromptu conference of probation officers, and invitations have just been issued for Conferences on Child Welfare to be held at Clark University, early in this month.

About one hundred delegates attended the Sixth Annual Conference on The Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children, which covered two days preceding the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The president was Col. C. B. Adams, who has just been called for the superintendency of the Ohio Industrial School for Boys to the St. Charles School for Boys in Illinois.

The discussions of the conference were maintained largely by the representatives of the juvenile reformatories. This is natural because nearly all delinquent children are both backward and truant. The problems included: What can be done with the border girl who is somewhat defective but not feeble-minded; ungraded schools for backward children as a means for reclaiming delinquent children; effect of play upon the development of the child; the child problem in the smaller towns and rural sections; how settlement workers may co-operate with the juvenile courts; co-operation of public school workers with institutional workers; how can the visiting agents of an institution influence the parents and relatives of children so that the homes to which they will afterward return shall be greatly improved or reformed; home placing; how can the cottage life of the delinquent boy and girl be made more home-like?; corrective work with Jewish boys and girls; discipline.

The keynote of the conference was the necessity for thorough and scientific child study, as a condition to properly dealing with the so-called delinquent child. Significant cases were related of children who had been "disciplined" when what they needed was surgical or optical treatment.

The possibilities of co-operative work on the part of social settlements, voluntary probation officers, "big brothers,"

etc., were recognized. At the same time, the necessity for training volunteer workers, and guiding their enthusiasm was made apparent.

Mrs. Amigh of Illinois, Mrs. Falconer of Pennsylvania and Mrs. Fairbanks of Connecticut pleaded the cause of the delinquent girl, and protested against what they regard as the unfair relative amount of attention given to delinquent boys as compared with delinquent girls. The necessity for individual study of the girl and for the development of her personal life was urged, and in this connection the fact was brought out that the new industrial schools for girls in Indiana and Pennsylvania are providing, as far as practicable, a separate room for each girl.

Much interest was shown in Mrs. Falconer's plan of securing young college women to fill the places formerly filled by uneducated and untrained women. The effect upon the girls of contact with educated young women has been found stimulating to mind, morals and manners.

The addition of the word "dependent" to the name of the association which now becomes the National Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant, Dependent and Delinquent Children was significant. The change was suggestive because it involves a recognition of the essential unity of all of these classes of children. There is no hard and fast line separating dependent from delinquent children, or dividing the backward from the truant child. All these lines of work being interrelated, must, of necessity, be carried on co-operatively if the ground is to be covered.

THE CHILDREN'S SECTION AT THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE

The children's section at the Buffalo conference which held five meetings and one general session, covered a wide range of subjects,—from juvenile courts, the breaking up of families and care of dependent children to child labor, truancy and rural education in the south. With this variety of subject matter there was remarked a constant emphasis on several points: First, that many agencies which are considered preventive—such as juvenile courts, truant officers, etc., are

really of a remedial character, and indicate that more stress should be given the conditions further removed. Second, that the public school system must more and more assume the responsibility of the education of all children—truant, delinquent, defective—with increasingly greater attention to a correlation of school work with social conditions; home life and industrial occupations. Third, that the greatest general needs in the work for children are accurate information, careful records and whole-souled co-operation between agencies of every character.

Mary E. Richmond of Philadelphia in the discussion on the first day of the meeting, struck the note which dominated the discussions thereafter, when she said that what the community needs today is not so much a minimum wage standard or a minimum standard of living, as a minimum standard of child-life below which the community must not permit any child to fall. The first meeting was given over to the question of the breaking up of families presented by C. C. Carstens of the Boston Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. Mr. Carstens emphasized the necessity of a broad conception of what constitutes cruelty in order that the cruelty societies may help in a great diversity of cases.

Homer Folks of New York, in discussing the subject called especial attention to the point that no family should be broken up on account of mere poverty, the proper treatment being sufficient relief in the home to keep the family together. Miss Richmond said that the real problem to be considered was that of those worthless persons "masquerading under the name of family," to whom relief societies extend too much patience and charity. While we may accomplish much by the supervision of families, we should be quick to act in those cases where it is evident no amount of aid can correct evils of long standing.

At the second meeting, on juvenile courts, Judge William H. DeLacy of Washington presented the methods of his court in aiding good citizenship. Besides the personal contact of the judge and children, Judge DeLacy, emphasized strongly the benefits of influence on the parents. Not only in the non-support

cases of dependent children, but in the cases of ignorant and careless parents of delinquent children, were the varied methods of dealing with parents shown as effective in their results on the home and the children. In the discussion that followed, the protest was several times made that we have treated the juvenile court too often as a pānacea for the ills of childhood, and that in reality it is only a specialized part of a large system for the general education of children. Judge Baker of Boston instanced effective personal methods of awakening boys' consciences, especially in cases of theft, and of educative methods in having boys copy and pass an examination on the ordinances in such cases as the violation of license regulations.

Miss Martha Berry of Georgia opened the third section meeting with a vivid and telling account of the work of educating southern highlanders in her school at Rome, Ga. She showed the new thrift and ambition which characterized the boys of the school in contrast to the highlanders about them. She instanced the effectiveness of the school as an example to the whole southern community, showing the appreciation of its results by the older generation of highlanders who have had no educational privileges. George Sehon of Kentucky who discussed the subject, told of the extension of effort for education among the mountaineers in Kentucky, and of the great ambition of the younger generation to get effective schooling.

At the same meeting Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly of Boston presented a most interesting analysis of the causes of truancy, based upon an observation of 500 children in Boston, and upon the written statements of a large number of the children themselves. As a symptom of conditions in the home, Miss O'Reilly found truancy most common. The individual causes of truancy lie mainly in actual or partial defectiveness often due to under-feeding, irregular hours and bad housing characteristic of the foreign-born population. The semi-defective truants of foreign parents form a great proportion of truant children in Boston. Roger Baldwin of St. Louis who opened the discussion pointed out the varying

complications in the causes of truancy in country and city, showing the influence of the defective home as a great cause, especially in connection with a neighborhood of abnormal attractions. The causes of truancy are so varied that they demand what truants seldom get—careful, intelligent, individual treatment. The responsibilities for the care of truants should rest on the public schools, not on the courts. Mr. Baldwin instanced the Boston School Committee's system as most effective in this respect.

At the general session given over to the committee on children, Dr. Walter Lindley of Los Angeles, spoke on the English system for the care of children, instancing the recent passage of the children's bill making the procedure for delinquent and dependent children uniform all over Great Britain.

Mr. Kelso of Toronto, Canada, spoke of the work for children in Ontario, explaining how the government had been working out a consistent system of protection. The work in Ontario is now mainly in the hands of government agents and is carefully systematized and correlated all over the province.

A review of recent developments in the child labor campaign in the south was made by A. J. McKelway of the National Child Labor Committee, who presented an interesting series of lantern slides; the following evening Mr. McKelway showed the efforts made to get the facts in the cotton and tobacco mills, and the evils of the oyster canning industry on the coast.

Hastings H. Hart of New York spoke on the development of unity in child-helping work as evidenced in the use of terms which tend to do away with differentiating children, and prompt us to treat all children as a unit. The evolution of the naming of reform schools and of the uniting of the committees on children in the national conference illustrate the movement. Mr. Hart called special attention to the spirit of co-operation in Boston among child caring societies.

The fourth section meeting was given over to the subject of state and private charities presented by Charles S. Birtwell of the Boston Children's Aid Society.

The discussion which followed, led by Stanley C. Griffin of Michigan and James H. West of the National Child Rescue League, brought out the desire for a more adequate supervision of charities and the necessity for better qualified private societies caring for children, especially the placing-out agencies.

At the final meeting of the section the after-care of institution was presented by Rev. Brother Barnabas of New York, who described the methods of the care and placing out of neglected and delinquent boys in foster homes.

The discussion which followed brought out the point that there exists a general impression that the city boy is best off on a farm—a conclusion which is quite controverted by the experience of the best placing-out societies. The foster city home has advantages which country homes do not afford and needs developing by placing-out agencies.

E. D. Solenberger of Philadelphia, in a paper on record systems for placing-out societies showed the general lack of efficient records, both in getting originally in each case adequate information, and in keeping accurate records of the progress of each case. He emphasized a careful knowledge of the general fact of every district where a child is placed, and the necessity for considerate, common sense inquiry by visitors. The discussion which followed, led by W. S. Reynolds and Mrs. W. B. Campbell of Indiana, brought out the duty of the placing-out society to the foster parents as well as to the child.

THE CORRELATION OF UNREST

FRANK T. CARLTON
Albion College

The attention of the ever restless American public is just now focused upon certain allied agitations, such as Christian Science, New Thought, the Emmanuel Movement and various lesser movements fostered by aggregations of enthusiasts, upon the subject of mental therapeutics. These movements or semi-religions all revolve around the idea that

the mind exercises control over the body. They differ radically as to the degree of subordination of the body to the mind. Christian Science goes to the extreme in one direction, making the body absolutely subordinate to the mind. The other movements stop far short of this extreme conception of the autocracy of the mind; but the sovereignty of the mind over the body is definitely affirmed.

These movements—let us call them all “new thoughtism”—are optimistic. They hold up to their devotees the idea of reducing, if not of eliminating, physical suffering here and now. New thoughtism appears at the end of a century and more of extraordinary multiplication of the productive capabilities of the western nations. Famine in the ancient sense is no more; the railroad, the telegraph and the modern factory system and intensive agriculture have forever banished this grim specter of the preceding ages. The Stoics of old accepted suffering as inevitable; but they met the problem with disdain for the ills of human existence. The new thought devotee holds that suffering is largely or entirely unnecessary. Among the middle class, at least, the traditional ills are disappearing. Hunger need no longer be feared, contagious diseases have lost their deadly power, and the elements have been, in a measure, conquered. The new ills of the upper and middle classes are caused by too little exercise, underwork, over-eating, inordinate desire for money, political or social standing. All these ills are capable of reduction through the exercise of the power of the will.

To the wage earner, to the man near the poverty line, to the overworked and under-nourished, new thoughtism offers little. The mass of converts for these cults do not come from the burden bearers of the race. To the man who is out of a job and whose wife and little children live in a cold room with little food on the table, the supremacy of mind over body is a fable. Relative certainty of the necessities and comforts of life must precede successful new thought propaganda among this numerous class in our population. The new thoughtists also overlook the dangers which come from con-

tact with our fellow men, and because of housing conditions and social situations over which the unaided individual has little control. Collective, governmental, action is here necessary.

Under primitive conditions the rule of the mind was strictly limited by the evils of under-production and under-consumption and over-population. The realm of the mind expands as want, under-production and over-population recede into the background, as smiling comfort, not gaunt want, approaches the family hearthstone. New thoughtism does not flourish on an empty stomach or on a depleted pocketbook. White linen, steam heat and mission furniture do not make the new thoughtist; but they make the appearance of these new cults possible. The propagandists of the new cults come from the middle class; they are no longer pursued by the wolf at the door.

These doctrines contain much truth; but not the whole truth. The modern psychologist has established certain portions of the tenets of these cults upon a scientific foundation. In order to round out the new thought system, in order to universalize the ideals of the new thoughtists, more equitable distribution of the products of the industries of the world is necessary. Undoubtedly, enough is produced, or can be produced, so that want of the bare necessities of life need come to no able-bodied man or woman, provided our scheme of world, or even national, production was systematized as is the work of the ordinary factory or commercial establishment.

The great disease of the past and of the present, but not, if our hopes are realized, of the future—poverty—cannot be cured by new thoughtism or by the remedy of the regular medical practitioner. The cure of poverty can be assured only by removing the cause. And what is the malignant germ or microbe which produces this dread disease of the ages? The socialists answer, exploitation; which being interpreted means that some do not reap all the harvest from which they sow, or that they are not allowed to sow what and when they wish. Slavery, feudalism, special privileges, unemployment,—these are words which tell of the

degradation of the many. These breed poverty for the many, and luxury for the few. And poverty for the many means crowding, under-feeding, weakness, inefficiency, degradation, crime, death, social degeneration and national decay.

The socialist and many conservative opportunist social reformers assert that the road to happiness and content can be made easy only by guaranteeing to each and every man an opportunity to provide for the necessities of life, by establishing the right to a job and to a minimum of leisure, by insuring workers against accident, sickness and old age, and by providing for the weak and the inefficient. They look at the material side of the problem of happiness and release from suffering. The new thoughtist from his firm pedestal of economic security against actual physical want, looks with disdain upon the crass materialistic concepts of the socialist; the former contemptuously shoves the socialistic view to one side. He does not, cannot, adequately comprehend the great problem of the poor; his life problem is very different. The average nearsighted onlooker carelessly affirms that the new thoughtist is an idealist and the socialist a materialist whose feet are heavy with clay. But this is the superficial view of the man in the street. The socialist is an idealist and an enthusiast; but his ideals are not kindred to those of the esoteric cult. In reality, both new thoughtists and socialists have half-truths,—different half-truths,—held before them. Each is hypnotized by the brightness and vividness of his own particular idea. New thoughtism cannot be universalized until the glaring evils of our present industrial mechanism are removed. On the other hand, socialism, the single tax or other proposed economic reforms need to be supplemented by the idea that in part the mind rules the body. Give the proletarian socialist a full stomach and a fairly definite and moderate income; and, lo, the grossness of his vision vanishes. New vistas of ideals and ambitions come crowding in upon him. In the course of a generation, he is transformed into an idealist of the new thought type.

The humanitarian leaders of the past

also came from the middle class; they never faced the terrors of the out-of-work. These men never walked the streets looking for a job or picked the scraps out of the hotel garbage can. And the same is true of the men of today who would banish trouble as a mere mental nightmare.

The difference between socialism and new thoughtism is one of class and income. And the future of new thoughtism lies not with the new thought propagandist, but in the hands of the socialist and of the less radical social reformer. If concentration of wealth continues, if the middle class is being transformed into a proletarian class, new thought is fighting a losing battle, because its field for possible converts is being gradually narrowed. Nothing short of thoroughgoing social reform or a "benevolent feudalism" of the capitalistic sort can save it. Commercial crises, lack of work, poverty, under-feeding, fear of want, a floating unemployed class,—all these are deadly foes of the new thought propaganda. As long as many fail to reap the just rewards of their labor and others live well but produce nothing, so long must the ideals of the mass remain upon the materialistic basis. Leisure for all and comfort for all are the basal socialistic demands. When these are realized, new thoughtism and idealism become universal; and a new and higher civilization is ushered in.

The true social reformer is a cross between the new thoughtist and the radical socialist. He emphasizes the necessity of a more equitable distribution of wealth, and of collective action to secure more sanitary and healthful conditions of living in public and private places. But he does not overlook the fact that many diseases and ills are mental and imaginary. The thoughtful reformer attacks the evils of modern life from both sides. He takes the rational ideas of the enthusiasts and rejects their exaggerations. The world needs the new thoughtist and the socialist. Faddists furnish the necessary stimulus which stirs the sluggish and the optimistic to action. Let us separate the wheat from the chaff; but it is better to get a little chaff than to lose any of the good wheat.

FRESH AIR FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN IN ENGLAND

HELEN C. PUTNAM, M. D.

Providence, R. I.

As delegate to the International Congress on School Hygiene at London, I gave several months to studying school hygiene in England. More than thirty elementary schools were visited. In only one did I find the air as bad as I have often found in ours; and it is only right to state that it was one of the former parochial schools that had recently been taken over by the city; a very old building, crowded with very dirty children. It will undoubtedly be brought up soon to the standard of the others.

In every school room visited there was a fireplace and one or more open windows. The Board of Education's rule is to keep the temperature between fifty-six and sixty degrees Fahrenheit—as much too low as our temperatures are too high. Cleaning of rooms and premises was better done than ordinarily with us, without which other hygienic details are heavily discounted.

School yards, although not ideal, are larger than the average here. I found no school in which outdoor recesses are omitted as in some of ours. Gymnastic drill is frequently in the yard. There is also for the yards a number of fascinating school games, supervised like the gymnastics, shared by all, and made a strong educational factor.

School yards are usually supplemented by playing fields, numerous, grassed, tree bordered, whose size and attractiveness were a surprise and delight. After school and on holidays instructors often go to them with their boys, and a few schools have field games for girls, whose "days" are neighborhood events. Walking through one green expanse where five groups of probably seventy youths each (some being onlookers) were intent on as many balls, I was struck with the quiet of their play. From those 350 there was not as much "howling" as is just now coming from a vacant lot 500 feet away where thirty little fellows are engaged. Both play fields are typical. Is the Ameri-



ERNEST P. BICKNELL.

One of the main sessions of the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Buffalo in June, was given up to the discussion of publicity and social reform. Probably few of the delegates knew that the president of the conference, Ernest P. Bicknell, had himself started life as a newspaper man in Indiana. His change from the copy desk to the secretaryship of the Indiana State Board of Charities was one of the picturesque incidents of the years when state sentiment crystallized in Indiana, and set standards of administration and legislation which were of great influence throughout the Middle West. From this wide experience in public charity, he entered upon the problems of a great city, becoming in 1898 superintendent of the newly organized Chicago Bureau of Charities. His Chicago work carried forward the development of efficient private charity, throwing emphasis upon volunteer work in district offices, and increasingly he took part in various important public movements dealing with hospitals, reformatories, the Cook County Infirmary, treatment of tuberculosis, etc. For example, he was a member of the committee which drafted the first juvenile court law in the country. He was one of the experts in emergency relief called to San Francisco at the time of the great disaster. This led naturally into the third phase of Mr. Bicknell's social work, distinctively national as in Indiana it had been statewide and in Chicago citywide. He is national director of the American Red Cross.

can idea that patriotism and enjoyment can best be expressed by noise either hygienic, or true, or to be cultivated? And are neglected building lots that chance has made vacant the only playgrounds worth while for the children of our vast acreage?

Swimming is very frequently a part of the school program, taught in open water when possible; or swimming tanks are used. Recently I have known two families, naturalized Americans, who have sent their boys "home" to English relatives for two or three years of school: "Because we want him to learn to swim—every boy should—and he'll get the industrial training. And he'll mind better over there."

There are some gardens, specially in schools for delicate children; but the school garden movement seems more vigorous with us. Soft coal smoke is a difficulty in England, injuring both soil and vegetation in its vicinity, the teachers state.

Excursions into the country for nature study are not uncommon. Here is a program ticket at the Bellenden Road school in London for boys about thirteen. The "motto" is:

And this our life exempt from public haunt
Finds tongues in trees, books in the running
brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything.

The preface, printed among birds, bats, bees and frogs, reads:

The object of these excursions is not only to increase the general knowledge of the children, but to give them some idea of how to spend a holiday well and happily. It is also the earnest wish of the promoters, that a love of nature may be aroused in the breasts of the youthful excursionists, and a desire to see more of the beauties of their native land.

Then come the summer excursions planned:

April 20.—Train from Peckham Rye to Bromley; walk to Hayes across the fields and thence to West Wickham and Keston Commons.

May 11.—Train from New Cross to Chislehurst; walk to St. Paul's Cray Common and Pett's Wood.

June 1.—Train from Peckham Rye to Purley; walk to Riddlesdown.

June 22.—Train from Waterloo to Claygate; walk across Arbrook Common to Esher Pine Woods, thence to Oxshott Common.

July 20.—Train from Peckham Rye to Burford Bridge; walk to Ranmore Common, Denbies and Dorking.

September 7.—Train from Liverpool street to Theydon Bois; walk through Epping Forest to High Beech and Loughton.

Try to fancy the school boy with that ticket in his pocket—and the results!

In some schools these excursions develop into camp weeks or fortnights. The camps often are permanent, either with tents or shacks or cottages. Year after year each teacher goes in with his own class usually. Recitations continue but are chiefly concerned with topics to which country life adds interest. Natural history trophies become a part of the school museum, and camp experiences afford educational material after the return. A further development is open air schools all the year around—the *waldschule* of Germany. Manchester has an interesting country school for town children, with gardening and housewifery as well as "academic" studies.

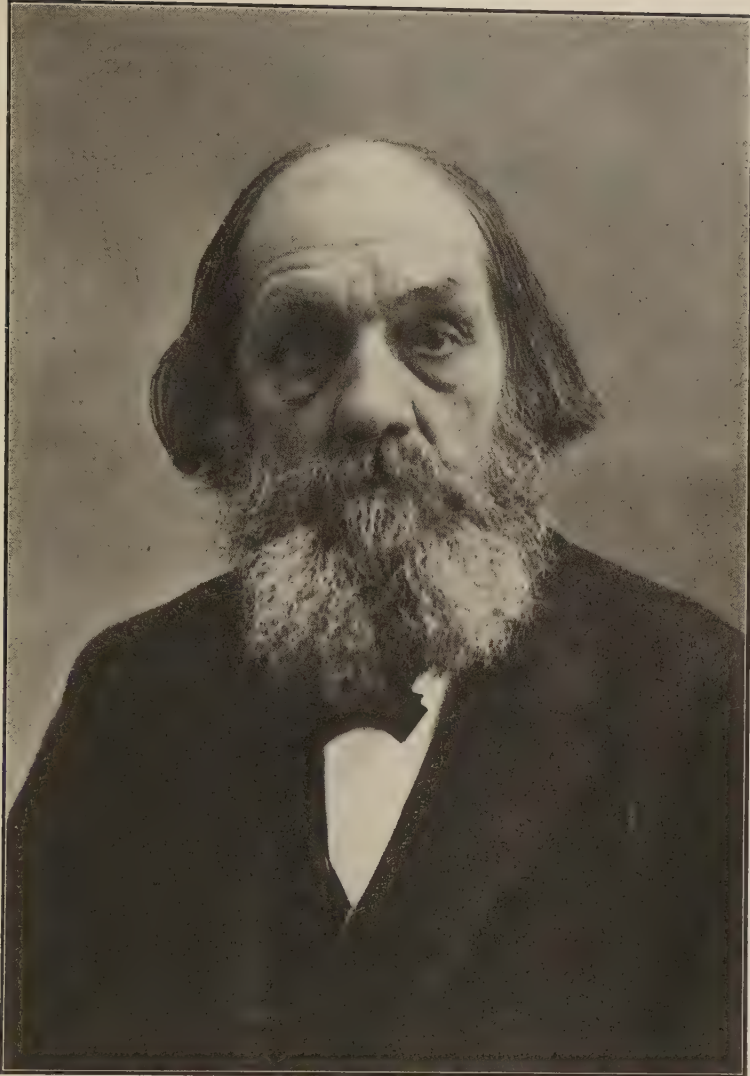
The central Board of Education leaves considerable initiative to individual schools and instructors, an opportunity that many utilize in fresh air ways similar to the above. Three excellences in English schools are their thoroughness, their vigorous physical training, and their comparatively good ventilation. One generalization well received at the congress was that every "system" of ventilation for schools must be supplemented by open windows and fireplaces.

THE CHURCHES AND THE WAGE EARNERS

Reviewed by JOHN HAYNES HOLMES

Assistant Pastor Church of the Messiah, New York

There is no "hope" for the continuance of organized religion, unless the churches change their methods and ideas to conform with the predominant social interests of the day . . . become thoroughly socialized." It is in these words that C. Bertrand Thompson concludes his book, *The Churches and the Wage Earners, A Study of the Cause and Cure of*



EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

As founder of *Lend-A-Hand*, "A journal of organized charity," which became merged with CHARITIES in 1901, Edward Everett Hale falls within that notable group of editors whose work moulded the early days of this magazine. The policy of *Lend-A-Hand*, as stated in its first editorial, has continued through the various mergers that have resulted in *The Survey*: "Many men and women have established this magazine that they may co-operate and have one common organ by which to explain to each other their successes and their failures. They will dwell on their successes more in detail than on their failures because their hope is to improve the condition of things but they will acknowledge failure when it exists and will tell enough of it to warn others from like false experiments." Dr. Hale's interest in philanthropic work was manifold. Of his interest in prison reform the secretary of the Massachusetts Prison Association writes, "For the discharged prisoner he always had sympathy and since his death I have heard him spoken of tenderly by one who told of his kindness to men of his class. One of his very last gifts for the relief of distress was made in behalf of a discharged prisoner. The great principles which he inculcated are those which underlie all work for the improvement of prisoners and persons."

Dr. Hale died on June 10, aged eighty-seven years. To quote President Tucker's characterization, when he bestowed the degree of Doctor of Laws on Dr. Hale.—"Edward Everett Hale, venerated and beloved; comforter and quickener of men; devoted to the social well-being, whose citizenship is acknowledged alike in the republic of letters of the state and of religion."

their Separation,¹ which is the most recent addition to that rapidly growing literature upon the church and the social question, which is so significant a feature of our time. Like all his predecessors in this same field of investigation, Mr. Thompson sees that the condition of the church is critical. Confining his study strictly to the one aspect of the general problem specifically indicated in his title—"that of the gulf between the masses of the laboring people and the churches of to-day,"—he measures with remorseless accuracy the width of this "gulf" and cites a multitude of facts to show that "the alienation of the masses from the churches" is well-nigh complete. Seeking the causes of this alienation, he considers at length "the many and various charges against the churches urged by wage earners and their sympathizers," and these "charges," he finds, on the whole, are justified. In a careful study of the present religious theories of the churches and their activities in pursuance of these theories, the author does his best, in the name of everyday fairness, to defend the churches from unjust indictment and to justify, or at least explain, its obvious failure to hold the confidence and support of the wage earners. "A broad review of the history of the social activities of the churches," he says in one place, "would show that in general they have done just about what they understood to be their duty in each age. . . . The trouble has always come, not from any failure in the performance of their duty, as they understood it, but in their misunderstanding of their duty, viewed in the light of the most advanced conceptions current in each period. The churches have always been slow in 'finding' themselves in their constantly changing environment." This, however, is only to confess that the charges of the laboring-classes are just, as Mr. Thompson himself admits with the utmost frankness. The churches have lagged hopelessly behind the march of theological, political and social progress and thus have won the contempt, instead of the rever-

ence, of men who care only for the living, not the dead.

Seeking a cure for this separation of the churches from the wage earners, Mr. Thompson first considers socialism, which is being freely offered to-day as "the economic expression of the Christian life," and states, with no little vehemence of expression, that Christianity and socialism are inherently incompatible and that the churches can find no remedies for their present ills in what is essentially an unreligious if not an irreligious movement. Identifying themselves with no one specific industrial or political party, least of all with socialism, Mr. Thompson urges that the churches, in order to regain the confidence of men, have simply to set about the business of seriously applying the spirit of brotherhood to the present social order—to show that they are in earnest in their profession and practice of this "idealistic and religious spirit." The minister must devote himself to "social preaching" and this all the more because "the problem of industrial justice is almost the only ethical problem which the churches have not already settled to the practical satisfaction of all." The minister must extend his activities far beyond the narrow bounds of his parish and become a leader in the industrial, political and social life of the community. Above all, the church must adopt "modern methods" of activity. There must be "more democracy in the churches"; a frank abandonment of denominational differences and jealousies; an adoption of institutional features which "reach the masses on the plane where the masses live"; "an increased sense of individualized responsibility among the church members"; a realization of the fact that the so-called social questions are all fundamentally religious questions, and that the churches must therefore lead the march of social progress. It is only through some such revolutionary change as this, says Mr. Thompson, in conclusion, that "there is hope for the continuance of organized religion."

In the facts which he has accumulated, in the interpretation which he has offered of these facts, in the "cure" which he has recommended for the churches' ills, Mr.

¹The Churches and The Wage Earners, by C. Bertrand Thompson. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 229. Price \$1. This book may be obtained through the offices of THE SURVEY.

Thompson obviously has little to offer which is new. There is to-day pretty general agreement among all real students of the question as to the present plight of the churches, the causes of this deplorable situation, and "the way out"; and Mr. Thompson's is but one more voice in confirmation of this well-nigh universal judgment. Nevertheless, this book is one to be cordially welcomed and carefully read, not only because this story cannot be too often told to a generation which seems strangely blind to the handwriting upon the wall, but also because this particular study of the situation, while not at all new, has certain distinctive merits of its own. Thus, the author speaks from the vantage ground of ample knowledge. Numerous quotations, copious foot-notes, and a bibliography comprising considerably over one hundred carefully selected titles, attest his familiarity with the field. Again, his fairness is evident upon every page. On the one hand, there is none of that sentimental and sniffing *apologia* for the church and pious appeal to sanctified traditionalism which render not a few volumes upon this question hopelessly ineffectual; and on the other hand there is none of that wild denunciation of the church, and fierce wrath against its shortcomings, which vitiate many an otherwise courageous book. Again, Mr. Thompson endeavors at all times to be scrupulously just to the charges and counter-charges of churches and wage earners, and thus goes far toward fulfilling the promise of his preface, that "it (the book) is written in the sincere desire to be helpful to the institution and the class in which he is most deeply interested—organized religion on the one hand and toiling humanity on the other." Mr. Thompson is absolutely uncompromising in the application of his remedy. He is here at one with Rauschenbusch and Crapsey and Campbell and Gladden in his call for a new church to meet the demands of a new age. If the change in methods and ideals demanded means the sacrifice of everything previously held dear, Mr. Thompson would make the sacrifice boldly. "If this can be done only at the expense of 'historical continuity' and the

other fetiches of the study, . . . by all means let them go," he says. "They are worth nothing in comparison with religion." Here is the true call to arms, which the churches must heed—or perish!

If the book can be said to be inadequate or unfair in any part, the charge must be brought against the section upon socialism. Persuaded at the start that Christianity and socialism are "inherently incompatible," Mr. Thompson makes the common controversial error of adjusting his facts to prove his *a priori* thesis. Endeavoring to prove that socialists are necessarily antagonistic to Christianity, he arbitrarily declares that those only are true socialists who are thus antagonistic and that those who are friendly to Christianity, and perhaps indeed ministers of the church, are for that reason not socialists. This is certainly arguing in a circle with a vengeance. Nothing could more fully demonstrate the fallacy of his reasoning here than the self-confessed socialists whom he quotes as identifying Christianity and socialism, and to whom, for this reason and no other, he denies the name of socialist. Nor need it be pointed out, in this same regard, that the author constantly confuses historic Christianity and the religion of Jesus, as though any defender of the practical identity of Christianity and socialism ever pretended that socialism were other than Christianity as Christ taught it! Granted that his definitions of socialism and Christianity are both adequate, and his conclusion is inevitable. But it is the very adequacy of these definitions which is in question!

Aside from this one section, Mr. Thompson's book is to be heartily commended in every particular. It may be safely placed upon the shelf beside that rapidly growing accumulation of books which shows that the day of judgment for organized Christianity is at hand. "The only question is," says Mr. Thompson, "will the churches of today see the present opportunity and grasp it, or will they struggle on fitfully until humanity comes to their rescue, but with a new religion of its own? The call is clear enough; will the churches heed it?"

THE VACANT FOURTH

THE DEAD AND WOUNDED.

1906.....	5,466
1907.....	4,413
1908.....	5,623

The Journal of the American Medical Association records 850 deaths resulting from the last five Independence Days.

"The vacant national holiday needs to be utilized as much as the vacant lot," said Dr. Luther H. Gulick at the Buffalo meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The accompanying pictures show how Springfield, Mass., has supplanted the old-fashioned Fourth, the "vacant lot" holiday dear to memory but costly in results, with a rational celebration in which the whole city participates. Last year's celebration, fully described in *Charities and The Commons* for July 11, 1908, will be reproduced on Monday next in a more elaborate form. The parade will consist of five divisions. First will be a series of pageants of scenes from the history of the city, such as the arrival of the first settlers under William Pyncheon; the purchase of land from the Indians; the passage of prisoners from Burgoyne's army; Shay's Rebellion, and the departure of troops for the war in Cuba. The remaining four divisions will constitute an exhibition of the business resources of Springfield. One section will show the commercial enterprises, another the manufacturers, a third the progress of science and invention as applied to industry, and a fourth the contributions of other people to the city's industries. This notable industrial parade is made possible by the hearty support and co-operation of merchants, manufacturers, members of labor unions, school children, and the representatives of the various nationalities in Springfield.

Folk dances will be made a feature of the children's games at the park. Great interest is being shown in the local displays in different sections of the city. Streets, houses, and public buildings will be gay with flags and bunting. Posters based on scenes in the pageant and signs to mark historic localities have been made by high school pupils.

At the May meeting of the Playground Association of America in Pittsburgh representatives from forty-five cities and towns held a conference on "a safe and sane Fourth" which resulted in the following resolutions:

1. In this country we have developed the habit of celebrating Independence Day in a way which recalls the manner in which our independence was gained; as a nation we have largely passed beyond the village stage, so that in modern city life the problem of civic celebrations becomes a very great problem. There is nearly universal condemnation of our present common methods of celebrating Independence Day.

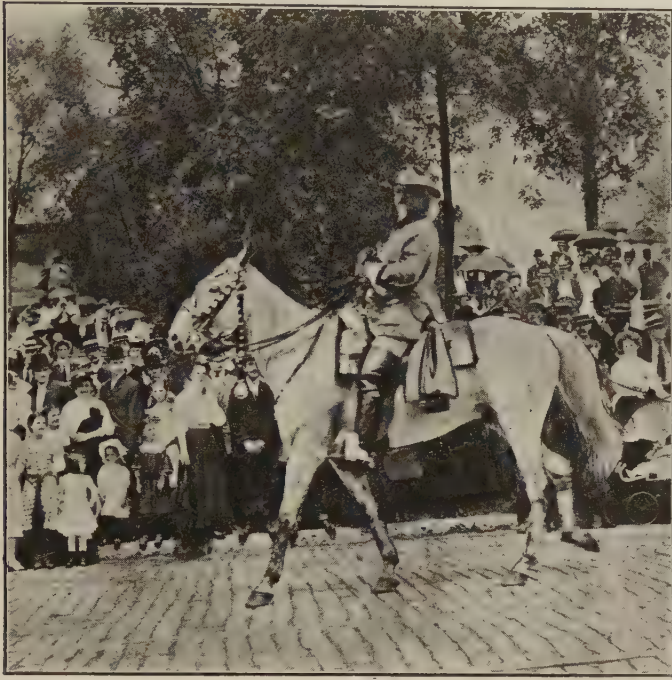
2. Much valuable constructive work has been done and is being done in the endeavor to find a suitable celebration to substitute for the traditional one. We, here, would call special attention to the kind of work that has been done in Springfield, Massachusetts, during the past seven years along this line. We indorse this work as resulting in celebrations that are safe, appropriate, inspiring and educative, and we believe that such celebrations combine important lessons in civic co-operation and community life.

3. We believe that the way a nation celebrates its holidays is one true test of its civilization. We hold that a true conception of Independence Day is equally appealing to people of all races, and that celebrations such as have been considered are on a level worthy of the day that is being celebrated.

4. We indorse all movements for safe and sane civic celebrations, and it is the sense of this meeting that the Playground Association of America should aid such movements in a constructive way by preparing and distributing programs for civic celebrations of Independence Day and other public holidays.

5. We discountenance the use of dangerous explosives, such as dynamite, and the use of pistols and revolvers in the celebration of Independence Day and other holidays.

SPRINGFIELD'S FOURTH OF JULY



BUFFALO BILL LEADS THE PROCESSION



THE BOYS' BRIGADE.



SIGNING THE TREATY.



THE FIRST AMERICANS.



SIGNING THE DECLARATION.



THE COLONIES.



The girls say that "carfare" is all it costs for a summer day at North Beach, admission fees the only "price" for a winter evening at a dancing academy. "With the voice of joy—with a multitude that kept holiday," they come and go at both places. In the summer the problem is what to do during enforced idleness; in the winter it focuses on where to go for relaxation. The beaches are summer types of amusement. The dancing academy of the winter months is at one end of a slide, with stops *en route*, to the saloon where dancing is allowed as a thirst accelerator—where girls are an asset only in proportion to the amount of liquid refreshment that they can induce the men to buy.

The amusement resources of the working girl run the gamut from innocent and innocuous vacation homes and settlement dancing schools, sparsely furnished for those "well recommended," to the plentiful allurements of the day boat, with its easily rented rooms, the beach, the picnic ground, with its ill-lighted grove and "hotel," to numberless places where one may dance and find partners, with none too scrupulous a supervision.

Having made accusations, let us proceed to substantiate them.

It is an industrial fact that the summer months find thousands of working girls either in the position of compul-

sory idleness through slack season in the trades with which they are familiar, or attempting "to kill time" through one or two weeks of a vacation, unwelcome because it bears no definite recreative fruit. The general aspects of the amusement problem of the working girl bear certain undetermined relation to the undercurrents besetting society in a large city, in proportion as opportunities for healthful outlet for social desire are adequate or inadequate. Industrial activity demands diversion. Industrial idleness cries out for rational recreation. As these are provided wisely and freely, the population of the underworld decreases. As they are neglected, the tide rises. Like Janus, the problem looks two ways—towards an escape from enforced idleness and relaxation from necessary labor. Active participation in athletics gives a natural outlet for the boy. The recreative desire of the young girl leads not to Sunday baseball—except as "he" may be playing—nor is it able to content itself with a comparatively expensive and therefore infrequent visit to the theater. Her aspirations demand attention from the other sex. No amusement is complete in which "he" is not a factor. The distinction between the working woman and her more carefully guarded sister of the less driven class is one of standards, opportunities, and a chaperon. Three rooms in a tenement, overcrowded

with the younger children, make the street a private apartment. The public resort similarly overcrowded, but with those who are not inquisitive, answers as her reception room.

There is no need to dwell on what have come to be almost-axiomatic statements of the uncomfortable home surroundings of the average working girl in a large city. It is perhaps equally ineffectual to harp on her natural desire for amusement. These things taken for granted, we must survey the field which spreads itself before her, first for the summer months and then for the indoor season.

The range of summer amusements around New York city covers first, beach resorts; second, amusement parks; third, the picnic park utilized for the outing, the chowder and the summernight's festival; fourth, the excursion boat; fifth, the vacation home or camp provided by settlements, churches, and girls' clubs.

Of the beach resorts, Coney Island and Rockaway are naturally in the van of public thought. Rockaway is expen-

sive to reach. Its *clientèle* is of the upper class of saleswomen and office workers. They enjoy the ocean bath and spend a comparatively simple day at the beach; and, being better provided with the world's goods than the average girl whom we wish to consider, are not seeking the same kinds of excitement.

Coney Island—the people's playground—where each year “everything is new but the ocean” is the most gigantic of the efforts to amuse.

A dancing master said: “If you haven't got the girls, you can't do business! Keep attracting 'em. The fellows will come if the girls are there,”

Coney Island does attract them. It only costs fare down and back, and for the rest of it the boys you “pick up,” “treat.”

When the girl is both lucky and clever, she frees herself from her self-selected escort before home-going time, and finds a feminine companion in his place for the midnight ride in the trolley. When she is not clever, some one of her partners of the evening may exact tribute for



PALISADE PARK ON THE JERSEY SHORE.



PALISADE PARK STANDS AS A MODEL.

Photo by Hine.

"standing treat." Then the day's outing costs more than carfare. With due recognition of the simpler amusement places on the island—such as Steeplechase Park, where no liquor is sold, and also of the innocent pleasure along the beach front, not even belittling the fact that "nice" people dance in the Dreamland ball room, the fact remains that the average girl has small powers of discrimination. So many hundred places abound on the island to counterbalance the few safe ones, that "careers" without number find their initial stage in a Raines law hotel at this resort.

The danger is not in the big places on the island, where orderly shows and dance halls are run, and where young persons may go unattended. But the greatest number of music halls and dance resorts are along the side streets of the Bowery, and, with the exception of one or two semi-respectable places, are thoroughly disreputable. On Saturday and Sunday nights many young working

girls are attracted to these places. They know the bad reputation of some of them, but the dancing floor is good, there are always plenty of men, and there are laughter and liberty galore.

The situation at South Beach on Staten Island is further complicated by the presence of the soldiers from Fort Wadsworth. Midland Beach, on the contrary, like Rockaway Beach, attracts only the better element, and is a pleasant, safe place to spend a summer day. The other beach resorts around New York are negligible quantities. They repeat the features of the other places, good and bad. They afford the same opportunities, and exhibit the same tired girls in the arms of more or less wakeful escorts on the late trolley cars, homeward bound. They all offer one thing—an easy starting point for the weak.

Providential fires have wiped out at least two of these places in the last year. Perhaps the rebuilding will be under bet-

ter conditions. Frederic Thompson, manager of such enterprises as Luna Park, maintains that "ninety-five per cent of the American public is pure and good, and it is this public that it pays to serve. I haven't any use for the bad five per cent. As a showman, I don't want them to come near my enterprises." There are not many managers of amusement enterprises that have made such distinctions. But the statement is none the less true, and this article means to say that the indictment is not against the girls, but against what is offered them.

North Beach, which is not on the ocean, is a narrow strip on classic Bou-

inquiry said, "My mother doesn't know I go out here; but I want some fun, and it only costs ten cents." Dance halls are nightly filled with girls, and acquaintances of unpleasant type all too easily accepted.

The "treats" the girls seem to want and care for, are not so much the amusement enterprises of shows and carrouseles, but things to drink. "He treated," is the acme of achievement in retailing experiences with the other sex, and the account that begins with, "They followed us, and then they tipped" (meaning they raised their hats) goes through the stages, "They asked us to give them a



Photo by Hine.

THE NATURAL ADVANTAGES HAVE BEEN PRESERVED AT PALISADE PARK.

werie Bay, less than a mile in length. It is long enough and wide enough though to have thirty-eight licenses to sell liquor, which cover in almost every instance more than one bar. A dancing floor, with a bar attachment, will be connected by passageways with another bar in a restaurant or hotel, all covered by the one license, and giving the proprietor three opportunities to sell liquor on his premises instead of one.

The place is frequented by an ill-paid class of working girls, white and black. A very young girl, seen returning home very late, in response to

dance" to, "They treated—She had beer and I had a lemon soda." For it is a characteristic that all the hunting, masculine and feminine, is done in couples. You are always sure of company then should you fail to so dire an extent as not to "catch on," and consequently not be "treated."

The amusement park does not abound in the neighborhood of New York. Two places only are worthy of mention, and these because of the extraordinary contrast between them. One is Palisade Park, on the Jersey shore, just opposite 130th street, and the other is Para-

dise Park, at Fort George. Fort George is the end of the Third avenue trolley car line. Its situation is at a beautiful end of Manhattan Island, and would offer a wonderful chance for a first-class enterprise to build something really picturesque and an amusement place of real value. As it stands now, it is to the amusement park what North and South Beach are to the beach resorts. It is filled with dancing pavilions, cheap music hall shows, penny arcades, moving picture places, with the usual Ferris wheel and carrousel accompaniments. Drinking places abound, and statements are made by the people who know the place best—including the waiters—that no decent girl is seen at Fort George after eight o'clock in the evening unless she is unconscious of her danger. No girl or group of girls can walk along the street there or through the park without being repeatedly accosted by men. Tough dancing is the rule. All the dance halls and many of the moving picture shows which also have dance halls, are run as adjuncts to the saloons. The liquor problem here seems to be responsible for the greatest part of the evil. Intoxicated girls abound, and the place boasts no good feature beyond its naturally fine situation.

Up on the Palisades exists the other kind of park. Palisade has been started with the same belief evidently that Mr. Thompson expressed, and Albert Tusch, the president and manager of the enterprise, who is an active member of the church, has been repaid for his faith. This is the second year of the park's existence. It has had to enlarge its facilities for dancing. Where the dance platform that accommodated five hundred couples was sufficient last year, this year a new platform is being constructed that will accommodate a thousand couples. The management is investing its profits in many new attractions and expending thousands of dollars. The situation of the park has many natural advantages. These have been utilized to the fullest extent, and beautiful walks abound among trees and shrubbery such as are not usually found

in other places of this character, except in the small country resorts far away from New York. Palisade Park stands really as a model for the people's amusement place. Its vaudeville features have been almost eliminated, and, even while in existence, had to pass censorship by the management before being presented to any audiences of the park. Musical comedy is taking the place of vaudeville. The frequenters of the park are young people from the factory towns in the neighborhood, and many visitors from New York and Brooklyn.

Palisade Park has had another interesting result. A number of cheap dance halls, attached to Raines law hotels in its immediate neighborhood, have had to close up during the months that Palisade is open. They had no business. Palisade offered such superior attractions that the common features offered by these hotels could not stand. And now comes the most interesting point of all about Palisade Park. You cannot purchase any intoxicant in any part of the grounds. Mr. Tusch is a Presbyterian, and his people were aghast at the idea of an amusement park, first, with a dancing pavilion, and, worse, with a dancing pavilion that was open on Sundays. But Mr. Tusch says that he is cheerfully lined up with the opposition. He is in the forefront of right thinking about amusements, and he offers an ideal play place, with the kind of attractions from every point of view that young men and women want. If they prefer dancing, they have the platform. If they want shows, they abound in the park. If they simply want to spend a pleasant day outdoors amid charming surroundings, the park gives them that too. Best of all, the girl is safeguarded from her chief enemy—the drink which begins so innocently, and which might end so disastrously. I am not writing a temperance argument, but experience with hundreds of girls who have learned the taste of liquor from the "treated" class of the dance hall or the amusement park, brings a realizing sense of its stupefying effect on the moral sensibilities brought about by its repeated use.

The picnic parks offer quite another



THE SALOON DANCE HALL.

Photo by Hine.

phase of the problem, and one that seems uncontrollable. These are public places built around a hotel and its bar. Usually they are situated in a more or less outlying district of Long Island or the Bronx. The hotel usually has a sparsely grown grove around it, although, in a few instances, where it is situated further out, it is very apt to have extensive grounds, which are at times for the main part unlighted. These places are not run by the owner, but are rented out to special clubs, private parties, and all kinds of organizations who "run off" the popular summernight picnic, where the cost of admission includes refreshments of "all the beer you want to drink," and the privilege of dancing. These tickets are sold promiscuously, and the price of admission varies from one dollar to five dollars. Many families go to these picnics and, during the day, the crowd is quite respectable. In the evening, the admission is reduced to twenty-five cents, and anybody may enter. The free beer stops at eight o'clock, and by that time the people who have been spending the day at the resort are ready to go home. I quote the report of Miss Julia Schoenfeld, who made a careful investigation of some amusement places for the Committee on Amusements and

Vacation Resources of Working Girls. She says: "At one Long Island park different men told me that decent girls get out of the park at eight o'clock. The shrubbery, trees, and poor lighting, and the absence of sufficient police surveillance, are conducive to immorality, and many a virtuous girl has left this park her integrity and honor ruined. In this same park, I saw many girls under sixteen, boisterous, 'fresh', and some already showing the signs of dissipation. It is the promiscuity of the evening that makes these places dangerous, as well as their opportunities for carousing and what goes after.

The excursion boats present a surprising state of affairs to those who have no experience with their attractions. The behavior of the crowd on a Rockaway or Coney Island boat, even on the late trips home on Saturday and Sunday nights, is more excusable than what has grown up on the "all day excursions." There are trips to New Haven on Sundays by the steamer Richard Peck. There are also trips to be taken on the Albany day boats, both up and down the Hudson River, and the Central Hudson Navigation Company operates the steamboat Homer Ramsdell between New York and Newburgh. All these steam-



PALISADE PARK'S NEW DANCE HALL.

Photo by Hine.

boats are fully equipped with state rooms, and it is here that the mischief goes on. These staterooms can be rented by the day by anybody who has the price—two dollars, sometimes three dollars. On the Homer Ramsdell, some can be had for one dollar, "according to location." As a rule, especially on the Homer Ramsdell, "the stock is oversubscribed" before the boat leaves her pier. Many of the persons who hold these staterooms do not require the use of them all day—since their purpose is not one of rest or comfort—and they speculate in the renting of them for short periods. Young girls who go on these outings are tempted by their escorts, the opportunity being so easily at hand. Miss Schoenfeld, in investigating this form of summer amusement, was able to rent staterooms for short periods on August 29, on the Hendrik Hudson of the Albany Day Line. In each instance, her escort was able to rent a stateroom for a short period, and had to adhere to the time limit. On the Hendrik Hudson the renting was done from the stewardess and the cabin boy. On the Homer Ramsdell, on August 30, inquiry at the window where staterooms were sold, brought out the information that all were sold. The offer was made by the ticket seller to give the use of a stateroom from the landing at 129th street to the downtown landing of the

boat for twenty-five cents. The behavior on the decks of the Homer Ramsdell on the late trip down the river is apparently far worse than that on any Coney Island boat. There are matrons employed on board these boats. They are respectable colored women, kind and gentle, but they have neither authority nor moral effect, and spend most of their time in the little sitting room allotted to them. The excursion boat offers such a vast opportunity for recreation, and is utilized so largely by young women that it demands attention. These are serious charges to have made, and the lines themselves having been written to, plead ignorance, but are ready to co-operate for betterment. In one instance, at least, suggestions and advice have been asked; and in another, great indignation expressed. This summer should demonstrate results if the desire for elimination of a vicious system is genuine.

Such accommodations as are offered by settlements and other organized philanthropic efforts are discussed fully in Mrs. Spingarn's article in this number. Her investigation and tabulation of these resources have been thorough. While the Committee on Amusements and Vacation Resources was prepared to find these outlets for idle girls meager, it has been astounded to find how very small and insufficient the provision is. The most important feature of this is the fact

that girls who are not known to the organization to which they apply by their participation in regular activities of the winter season, cannot be accommodated. It is true, these places are all practically crowded to their limit. But just the ordinary average working girl, earning five or six dollars a week, cannot possibly get away from her greatest enemy,—the summer period of nothing to do. Girls are so eager to find occupation for these idle days that they will offer to do almost anything. Not all of them have the ability to become waitresses, or the qualifications to act as nurse girls during the summer, even were opportunities numerous. The girls with days and weeks to pass, haunt the public roof gardens, recreation piers, and other outdoor places; many offer to accompany little children for day's outings if only their carfare is provided, and some are even willing to pay that for the chance of a day filled with occupation and with some recreative gain. Cannot the settlement utilize such girls between the ages of fifteen and eighteen as caretakers for such trips? Some years ago the Educational Alliance, New York, used to make a feature of its caretakers quite as much as of the children who went on these

trips to the various public parks. The money earned by the average girl is an absolute necessity in her home. Such part of it as is given to her for her weekly expenses is all expended, and when the summer months come, there is nothing put away. How could there be on six dollars a week most of which has to go toward the family at home? If the girl be living by herself, she has an even harder struggle, and a working girl with a bank account is a rare creature. Going about these summer amusement places, one is struck by the absence of the settlement girl. Of many hundreds of girls spoken to only nine had ever heard of a settlement or a church society. Does this mean that the settlement girls are too good to go to such places, or is it rather an indictment of the settlement in that it does not reach the great army which is not seeking, but which would be glad to find its advantages? Perhaps the vacation home is "dull" in comparison with the fascinations of the outdoor resorts. Would it be possible to effect some sort of combination? Future summer homes to be established would find shore locations give the most satisfaction to a *clientèle* of working girls. The water offers so



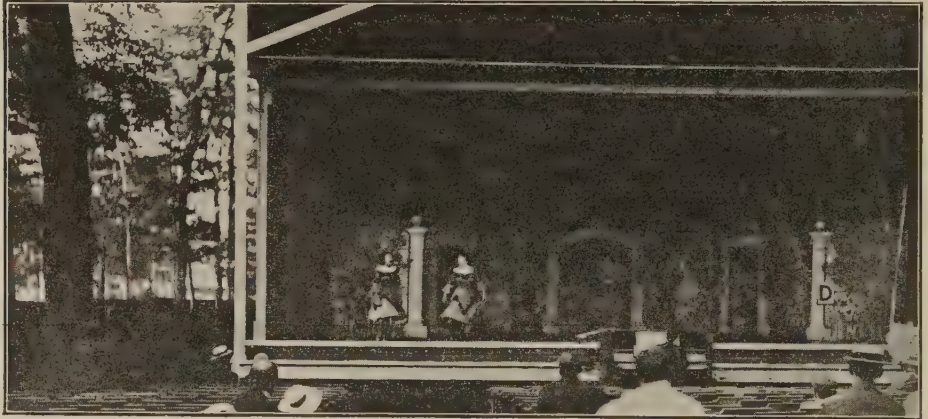
THE WHOLE STORY.

The dance, the drink, the man, the girl.

Photo by Hine.

many things that are altogether different from the girl's daily run of life that she would not miss the society of men quite so much as in a quiet country spot where her only diversions are walks and the usual one drive which falls to her lot during her short stay. The beach offers so much that makes for healthy tiredness at night. Dancing among themselves or a few simple games would pass away the very short evening hours, before the girl felt that her bed was the most inviting place to go to. Cannot the existing homes also offer some opportunities for the week ends? The simplest kind of shacks or tents would give all the shelter necessary, and where provision has to be made for forty or fifty girls, ten or fifteen more over Sunday hardly means

ness street. Columbia street, Delancey street, Stanton street, Allen street, Houston street, all have their quota of places, good, bad, and indifferent. Further uptown, the dance places hold sway in almost every locality, and the problems which this dancing mania presents vary from the moral issues of the lower East Side to the drink temptations that beset the girl further uptown. This is essentially the winter problem. Down on the East Side, dancing is cheap. Twenty-five cents a couple is all it costs,—ten cents for girls, because, as I have said before, the girls are the desirable quantity. Throughout the city the rule obtains that it shall cost the girl less to enter the hall than the man. Downtown, the dancing academy presents its



THE OUTDOOR THEATER.

Photo by Hine.

very much additional expense or labor. The week end from Saturday noon to Sunday night shows a great gap in the life of the girl. She is driven to the beaches and the amusement parks and the picnic places, and driven to the worst of them, because she has choice or knowledge of all too few good ones. Some amusement parks of the right sort and a real "people's playground" at the seashore would help the situation immensely.

The town is dance mad. If you walk along Grand street on any night in the week during the winter months, the glare of lights and the blare of music strike you on every side. It might be an esplanade at Dreamland instead of a busi-

ness street. It is frequently located in rooms not adapted for such purposes, and very often unsafe and unsanitary. It is called a dancing academy, because on at least four nights a week, instruction in dancing is actually given. It pays to have the classes as a basis for the crowds which it is hoped to attract on "reception nights." Usually Wednesday, Saturday and Sunday nights are set aside for receptions, and Sunday afternoon for matinee dances. This is the rule everywhere in the dancing academies, not only on the East Side. These receptions are really public dances, which anybody with the price of admission may attend. In a few places, on the payment of admission,



"THE TROUPE."

one may enter any night, and provision is made for these transients, by having every other dance a general dance, the one in between being given up to the pupils and their instruction. The downtown hall is infested with the "spieler." This refers not to his style of dancing, but it is a generic term covering many youths who have no other apparent means of livelihood than assisting the dancing master with his pupils. It is the business of the spier to attract and interest young girls. He dances with the wall flowers, and he is expected to keep everybody happy and everybody busy. He makes it his duty also to point out to those seeking them, the girls whose "good time" can be prolonged beyond the dancing floor. He is acquainted with the moral character of every girl who enters the place, and in all too many instances, he is probably responsible for it. Whether the spier is part of an organized system for supplying girls to houses of prostitution is questionable, but he is a part of that underworld which spreads its network for that most attractive of captures—the young and innocent girl. Spielers will tell you in moments of confidence that no girl comes to the dance hall night after night and remains what she was when she began coming there. You cannot dance night after night, held in the closest of sensual embraces, with every effort made in the style of dancing to appeal to the worst that is in you, and remain unshaken by it. No matter how wary or how wise a girl may be—and she has enough things in her daily life in factory and store to teach her—she is not always

able to keep up the good fight. It is always a matter of pursuit and capture. The man is ever on the hunt, and the girl is ever needing to flee. It does not necessarily mean that these girls become prostitutes, but they belong in one of the many hundred classes into which the social evil divides itself. In the uptown dancing academies, the liquor selling that goes on assists in the weakening process. It helps to becloud the vision and to make distinctions between right and wrong a little more puzzling. In many instances, especially in the light-hearted Irish boys and girls, there is no deliberate intention to seek out the girl for wrongful purposes, but the girl is pretty and happy, and she wants a good time, and she does as the other girls do. She takes soft drinks at first, but later she begins to like being just a little bit sporty. At this stage of the game, the cocktail is introduced, and both boy and girl frequently leave the warm hall where they have been dancing together and drinking, none too clear in their minds as to their relations towards each other. The girls of this type rarely go very far on the downward path, but they are only too apt to lose the bloom of their youth in the course of these promiscuous amusements.

Dancing is offered in another class of place. Many saloons have as adjuncts a dance floor in a room set aside for that



OUTDOORS AT PALISADE PARK.

purpose. Here, without any attempt at concealment, the drink is the thing, and it can truly be said, "They have cast lots for my people and have sold a girl for wine." Dancing is carried on for three minutes, and then there is an intermission of fifteen to twenty minutes, when the waiter urges you to drink. If you don't drink, and if you don't get other people to drink, you are not welcome, and the waiter very frankly tells you so. The saloon dance hall has no good features. A method must be found to stamp it out altogether. No effectual means has as yet been found. The evils are masked under a semblance of giving pleasure. It is the most insidious form of enticement. It must be said for these places that good girls go there by accident more than design. The good girl is more apt to go to the dancing academy, but even the percentage that does go to these places should be kept away.

Girls do not of intention select bad places to go to. The girl whose temperament and disposition crave unnatural forms of excitement is nearly beyond the bounds of salva-

tion; but ninety out of one hundred girls want only what they are entitled to—innocent relaxation. The moving picture show is on the wane. The skating rink had its day long ago. The dance is destined to be the next feature in popular amusement.

Let us provide it plentifully, safely, and inexpensively. Then the winter problem will be taken in hand. The bill to regulate and license academies meets only a few of the most apparent evils. How to legislate out of existence the bad features of the summer amusement places seems almost unanswerable, since there are so many political and other interests that work underneath in these enter-

prises. An ex-governor of the state controls one of the excursion boats of which we have spoken, and a state senator is most deeply interested in Coney Island. It is a fetching argument against any attempted betterment to say that the people's amusements are being interfered with. It is hard to realize that interference is necessary for social betterment. It is not beyond the bounds of possibility that a municipal scheme of amusement could be evolved. The public parks have their bad features, in the fact that they are not sufficiently lighted, and a thorough socialization and standardizing of their facilities would mean much for their eventual use as real places of recreation. The recreation piers need

the same things. It is pathetic to see how every little patch of trees all around this great city has its group of seekers after sylvan pleasures on Saturdays and Sundays. Van Cortlandt Park, now made so accessible by the subway, is filled on Sundays with young men and women, who apparently ask nothing more than the doubtful pleasure of sitting quietly



on the benches or the grass eating peanuts. Why not a public dance platform, to which admission is charged, and which is properly conducted? They have them in France and in Germany—and they work and they pay. Why not a public carrousel? Why not other amusement features in some corners of the great new parks which we are acquiring? These things do no harm, and they offer innocent diversion of the kind which the multitude seeks.

We must recover from the idea that the public is intrinsically bad. It needs instruction in the fine art of using, not abusing its privileges, and a little faith in the great American proletariat will

develop a marvelous return.

Let us frankly recognize that youth demands amusement. When the cities begin to see their duties to the little ones, playgrounds come. Youth plays too. Instead of sand-piles give them dance platforms; instead of slides and seesaws, theaters; instead of teachers of manual occupations, give them the so-

cializing force of contact with good supervising men and women. Replace the playground, or more properly, progress from the playground to the rational amusement park.

Denial of these privileges peoples the underworld; furnishing them is modern preventive work and should be an integral part of any social program.



THE SCOPE AND RESULTS OF CITY PLANNING IN EUROPE

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Three months of hurried travel in Europe last winter, devoted almost wholly to the study of city planning, sufficed to make me realize on the one hand what a deal of light can be thrown upon American city problems by a study of European work, how much we can learn from their mistakes as well as from their many successes, and on the other hand how superficial and limited is my own acquaintance with the field. In the humble spirit of a student, then, I offer my observations for what they may be worth.

The substance of this article was prepared for an address delivered before the Conference on City Planning in Washington, D. C., on May 22.

The most elementary kind of city planning, of which evidences are to be seen in almost every western city, while strikingly absent from the street plan of Constantinople—is the effort by some kind of municipal action so to control the layout of new streets opened up by landowners for the development of building lots that they shall serve more than strictly local purposes. The immediate, local, selfish purposes of landowners would often best be served by little alleys, courts and lanes coming to dead ends or returning upon themselves by bends and elbows in a manner calculated to exclude through traffic, but fitting the



TYPE OF FORMAL BOULEVARD WITH VISTA POINT AT STUTTART.

shape of the land holdings and the contour of the ground in the most economical and cheeseparing way. Indications of this primitive kind of individualistic development are to be seen in the medieval portions of most European cities, modified, however, by many evidences of their strong and healthy communal spirit, such as broad haymarkets and other market places and squares, churchyards, common landing-places or strands on the shores of navigable waters, and almost always by a few tolerably continuous and direct but often narrow thoroughfares connecting the market places and other centers of traffic with the outlying country. In the map of Constantinople these evidences of higher organization are generally lacking, wide areas being covered with a chaotic complex of undifferentiated wriggling alleys leading nowhere.

Conscious and organized public effort at city planning seems ordinarily to begin by the effort so to control the lay-out of new streets created by private initiative as to accomplish two simple and easily understood purposes.

First, to make new streets connect with older streets so as to afford more or less continuous lines of travel.

Second, to make the streets wide

enough to avoid probability of traffic congestion.

When city planning is taken up in detail with merely these two objects in view, and especially when it is done in a routine way, with the minimum of expense for surveying and the minimum of thinking and trouble devoted to special planning for special cases, the result is apt to be a mechanically standardized arrangement of streets and blocks, in which nearly all the streets approximate the same standard width, and nearly all the lots the same standard depth, with little regard to the probable uses of the land; or to the volume and character of traffic on the streets as determined by the grades, by natural advantages and disadvantages, and by adjacent developments.

This mechanically standardized planning in its extreme case of a single system of uniform rectangular blocks, with uniform straight streets covering the whole town or very large quarters thereof, is of course more characteristic of American cities than of any others in the world. But even where little rectangularity can be found in the plan and where there are few streets that run perfectly straight for more than a short distance

at a time, this mechanical standardizing of the street plan can often be recognized in the comparative uniformity of street widths, standardized at a breadth considerably greater than is required for strictly local purposes, and in the comparative uniformity of lot depths.

An interesting fact is that although rigid municipal legislation and official routine and local habit tend to bring about such a standardizing in any given locality, much variation is to be found in the standards adopted in different localities, even under similar economic, social and topographical conditions. In other words, the standards appear to have been determined more or less by accident and to persist through inertia, rather than to be the result of a successful adaptation of means to ends. Another interesting fact about these locally standardized street plans is that they have a distinct influence on the type of buildings that can be economically erected in each locality at various stages of its development; for example, they often increase or decrease, as the case may be, the economic inducement to erect rear tenements and deep, dark, ill-ventilated buildings.

City planning, carried to this point, accomplishes two things. It gives through connections of some sort at both

ends of practically every new street that is constructed for local purposes in opening up new building land, and it insists on a standard minimum width for every street so that it will be able to carry some through traffic in addition to serving the purely local needs of the abutters. The chief defect of the standardizing process everywhere, is due to the fact that the great bulk of street traffic inevitably tends to concentrate itself upon a certain limited number of thoroughfares, the lines of least resistance, and unless this tendency is foreseen and adequately provided for by giving very much more than the average capacity to those streets which will form the main thoroughfares, there is danger of serious congestion and inconvenience. On the other hand the uniform insistence upon a minimum street width that is but little below the average for all streets in the city results, in the case of purely local streets, in a needless extravagance in respect to the land thus withdrawn from productive use, and in respect to actual outlay for street construction and maintenance; an extravagance the burden of which must be borne by the occupants of the district, whether they be tenants or owners. Also the tendency of the standardizing plan to encourage the distribution of a certain amount of through traffic upon nearly



TOPOGRAPHICAL OBSTACLES BOLDLY OVERCOME ON MAIN THOROUGHFARES IN STUTTGART.

every street in each district is a distinct injury both to the residential streets, where the abutters wish to escape from the disturbance of traffic, and to the retail commercial streets where the abutters wish to have the maximum amount of traffic pass their places of business.

There has long been a recognition of the more obvious trouble of deficiency in the main thoroughfares, whether resulting from a wholly unregulated natural growth of local streets, or from a perfunctory and mechanical standardizing plan such as has so often prevailed both in English and American towns, wholesale rectangular and monotonous with us, and piecemeal with them, but similar in practical results. For more than half a century, particularly in France and in Germany and in the countries that have most strongly felt their influence, the provision of a liberal number of exceptionally wide thoroughfares, from a hundred feet to a hundred yards or so in width, has been a systematic feature of city extension plans. The type was fixed mainly perhaps by the striking examples set in Paris under the Second Empire, which were themselves based, artistically, upon the avenues of the formal parks of Le Nôtre, made known to all of Europe two centuries before by the great prestige of France. The type is a familiar one to travelers in almost any part of continental Europe where active city development has been in progress: a broad straight avenue, usually of a moderate length, often provided with an effective vista point such as a public building or monument or fountain, generally lined with symmetrical rows of trees, and flanked or intended to be flanked by buildings approximately uniform in height and architectural character.

As the common name of "boulevard" implies, these broad thoroughfares originated in the opportunities which are repeatedly presented during the expansion of fortified cities for so utilizing the sites of the older and outgrown military defences, technically known as "*boulevards*" or bulwarks. But the utility and popularity of these circumferential boulevards early led to a public demand for similar thoroughfares running

in and out of town on radial lines where danger of traffic congestion is obviously much greater than on circumferential lines; and as I have said they came to be a regular feature of progressive city planning on the continent of Europe during the latter half of the nineteenth century. These boulevards are not in most cases primarily pleasure drives, as is usually implied of a so-called boulevard in this country, but are main thoroughfares used by street railways and all kinds of street traffic, heavy and light, the trees and decorative features being a mere incident though an important and highly appreciated incident of this general utility. The absence of fortified cities in England and America during the period of most active city growth and the consequent absence of the peculiar opportunities for forming successive ring-boulevards as popular object lessons in what a really liberal thoroughfare can be, have probably had as much to do with the deficiency of such thoroughfares in our street extension plans as the individualistic and decentralized character of Anglo-Saxon democracy.

Although the provision of a certain number of exceptionally wide thoroughfares, adapted to carry without possibility of congestion the main streams of travel, has thus for a long time been an accepted feature of extension plans of continental cities, and although great numbers of such boulevards have come into being, it is only within the last two decades that the other objections to mechanically standardized street planning have begun to be fully realized. In 1892 in the Prussian House of Representatives the minister of finance, in presenting a bill relative to town planning, said:

Everywhere equally wide streets have been made, whether they were intended for the use of the well-to-do classes, whether they are in a district of heavy traffic, or whether they are in the less busy parts of the town in which, naturally, workmen seek a home. . . . And the spaces between streets have been made far too great and thus back-buildings have been artificially called into existence. In preparing a rational town building plan our task will be to avoid these faults, and to take as our aim that narrow as well as wide streets shall be laid out, which will cost less to make, and especially that plots for build-

ings shall be less deep, so that huge tenement houses may be avoided.

This speech suggests the coming of a far broader and wiser attitude than that which merely sets an arbitrary minimum of street width and establishes a mechanical method of agglomerating block after block and street after street of a standardized type, or even that which adds with liberality the main thoroughfares of extra width and gives them a grandiose architectural character. It marks a recognition of the idea that the ultimate purpose of city planning is not to provide facilities for certain kinds of transportation or to obtain certain architectural effects, but is to direct the physical development of the city, by every means of control within the power of the municipality, in such a manner that the ordinary citizen will be able to live and labor under conditions as favorable to health, happiness and productive efficiency as his means will permit. Intelligent economy in the use of land and in construction and in maintenance is of the essence of the problem. It involves large questions of economics and social development and not merely those of engineering in the narrow sense, or of architecture in the narrow sense.

This broad ideal of city planning has been worked upon for fifteen or twenty years with the diligent patience and technical erudition with which the German is apt to pursue his ideals, and has been of influence not alone in Germany but in many other countries, particularly among the keen and progressive democracies of Switzerland.

Just as in America, cities in Germany deal with problems of street layout and other items of city planning under general state laws supplemented by a certain amount of special enabling legislation passed at the instance of particular cities. The laws differ widely in different states of the empire, and the action taken under them by different cities is still more various. The same is true of the different cantons and cities of the Swiss Federation, and it is quite impossible to condense into this paper any proper summary of the scope and results of the multitudinous experiments in European city planning, even though I

confine myself to the fractional minority with which I have some slight personal acquaintance.

Merely by way of example, as showing the scope of city planning in a progressive European community, I will offer some citations from the state law of Saxony on this subject, and supplement it by references to a few different provisions elsewhere. In most cases my citations are at second hand, mainly from Mr. Horsfall's excellent compilation, *The Example of Germany*.

As I have tried to make clear, a city plan in Germany includes in one unified project not only a surveyor's plat for the layout of streets and so forth, but the whole code of building regulations, health ordinances, police rules and system of taxation in so far as they have a direct influence upon the physical development of the city.

Perhaps nothing will give a more definite idea of the scope of German city plans than to enumerate the provisions of Section 18 of the Saxon law, which directs that in the preparation of building plans, as they are called, attention must be paid "to the claims of security from fire, of the public traffic which is to be expected, and of health; to a suitable supply of water and to drainage; to the position and development of the place, and to the need for dwellings corresponding to the local conditions; and also to ensuring that streets and squares shall not be disfigured. In this relation special attention must be paid to the following points: (a) The position of the blocks of building, as well as of the lines of streets and the building-lines, must be adapted to the configuration of the land, and must be such that an adequate supply of sunshine will be secured in occupied rooms; (b) the dimensions of the various blocks of building must be such as to allow of the proper utilization of the ground for building; (c) the width of streets and footpaths is to be decided by the requirements of local traffic, and must be suitably graduated in accordance with the nature of the streets as main streets, secondary streets, or streets only used for dwellings. In the case of streets for which through traffic may be expected



VIEW ACROSS A RING-BOULEVARD AT THE POINT WHERE IT IS INTERSECTED BY TWO RADIAL THOROUGHFARES.

eventually, especially street railroad lines, and where a widening of the street must be anticipated, there must be front gardens of suitable depth on both sides restricted against building; (d) gradients in the streets must be distributed as evenly as possible; heavy gradients, deep cuttings and embankments, as well as inordinately long straight lines of streets, must be avoided as much as possible; (e) in determining the directions of streets care must be taken to provide short and convenient connections between streets and with the chief centers of traffic; (f) open spaces and public shrubberies must be so arranged in respect of size, position and number, as to be useful in relation both to convenience of traffic and to general welfare. Sites for churches and school buildings, as well as public playgrounds and recreation grounds, must be provided in sufficient number; (g) in deciding what shall be the kind of building allowed, and as to whether factories and workshops shall be allowed, the existing character of the district, or part of a district, and its needs must be taken into account. In any case, care must be taken that continuous lines of building, so far as they are not excluded by the local building regulations, shall be interrupted in sufficient measure by streets of open building, and

that in the outer districts a suitable restriction of the density of building and population occurs; (h) front gardens, except when they are provided only in view of a future widening of the street, must have a depth of at least fifteen feet; (i) the number of stories to be allowed must be decided according to the character of the place and the width of the street; (k) the necessary courts and gardens in the interior of a block of buildings must be secured by regulations respecting their area and position, and, if necessary, by fixing back-building lines; (l) so far as any building at all is permissible on land behind buildings it must be made to depend on the size of the court or garden, and, as a rule, be allowed for dwelling purposes only if a supply of light at an angle of at least forty-five degrees is secured for all the windows of the back-building, and the space between the front and back-building is, in suitable cases, planted as a garden. Exceptions are to be allowed under special conditions in the central districts of large towns. In no case may the back-buildings of a street form a continuous row; (m) in the case of blocks of building land which are suitable for the purpose, power can be reserved for the building police authority, on the application of the parties inter-



VIEW LENGTHWISE OF A LIBERALLY PARKED RING-BOULEVARD AT THE POINT WHERE IT IS CROSSED BY RADIAL THOROUGHFARES.

ested, to allow supplementary streets or dwellings to be formed, but in such cases only detached or semi-detached houses, of not more than three stories can be built.

"The Building Plan . . . when it has been once decided on, is authoritative in relation to all buildings in the district to which it applies. But the owner of land which the plan shows to be intended for use for public traffic may use it, till he has to surrender it to the community, for purposes other than building, and . . . make changes in the mode of cultivating the land which increase its value. If later the land is expropriated or the owner has to give it to the town without receiving payment, compensation for the increase of value must be paid him."

It is just as well to explain in regard to the somewhat startling phrase about the owner having to give land to the town without payment, that it refers to the extension and systematizing in German cities of the custom which is common in actual practice in America, of requiring owners who wish to open up their land for building to "dedicate" the streets without cost to the city before the city will accept them as public ways and put in sewers, etc. With us, if the land owner is not absolutely dependent upon

the city for putting sewer connections or water mains in the streets before he can sell out, he is at liberty to make private ways of any width and in any form he pleases entirely regardless of any city plan, and after houses are erected and the lots are in possession of innocent purchasers, the slow-moving city is left to condemn the areas needed for a proper street system and to pay the excessive damages which a sympathetic jury is sure to award to the individuals thus beguiled by the original promoter into a position of conflict with the city. In a German city, it seems that ordinarily a building permit is not issued, in any district for which a building plan has been prepared, until the lands required for the proper public necessities of the locality have been dedicated or otherwise acquired by the city. As with us in suburban street development, dedication is the usual method; but in case the relation of the proposed streets, etc., to the existing lines of land ownership is such that to require their direct dedication would put an unfair burden upon certain owners, provision is made for an equitable adjustment of the burden between the different owners by means of cash payments. But the burden of providing the lands required for the proper development of that district is made to

fall entirely upon the owners thereof and not upon the taxpayers at large. If, however, the building plan for the district includes any main thoroughfares of more than a certain standard width and more than local value, the extra width of land included in those thoroughfares is paid for by the city.

But perhaps the most interesting and illuminating feature in this connection is that in some cities at least, the land owners of each district as it is opened up by the city for building purposes, are required to dedicate not only the streets but all other areas of land properly to be regarded as necessary for the public uses of that locality. This means that an apportionment of lands for local playgrounds and recreation grounds, local squares, etc., and sites for schools and other public buildings, sufficient in extent and suitable in position to meet the reasonable requirements of the locality when fully built up, must be set apart at the beginning, and the cost of so doing must be deducted from the profits which accrue to the owners from the opening up of the territory for building purposes or collected by them through increased prices from the purchasers who are to use the lands thus set apart. As in the case of wide thoroughfares of more than local importance, so in the case of lands reserved for parks or other public purposes if they be greater in extent than is required by a proper regard for local needs the balance is paid for and charged to the city as a whole.

In this connection it is interesting to note the land policy of many European cities. There are great diversities of policy but at least in the case of many Swiss and German cities there has been a recent revival and reapplication under new conditions of an old inheritance. A great many old communities have possessed since an immemorial past large areas of land, mostly outside of the built-up parts of the town, held as common land and used by the citizens, or by certain restricted classes of burghers or "commoners," for purposes of pasturage or timber supply or otherwise. The comparatively small commons of New England towns represent the transfer of this custom to America; and in the case

of Lynn, Massachusetts, an outlying wooded tract of about a thousand acres was held until within a few years as common-land, although title to it rested not in the municipality but in the widely scattered heirs of the original settlers. In many Swiss and German cities the community has retained down to the present day an effective, undivided control of large areas of this sort, and they are being utilized not only as recreation grounds for the people, which is the only use of the remnants of the old commons in English-speaking communities, but as productive financial assets. The beautiful forest of the Burghers of Berne in Switzerland, and the well-known Stadtwald of Frankfurt on the Rhine are but types of hundreds of such community forests which are being run at a small but steady profit. On the other hand, with the growth of the cities, a considerable municipal income has been derived from opening up portions of such public lands for building purposes. Sometimes the lands so opened up were sold, but sometimes they were rented out on building leases. It has become growingly evident that the power of a city thus to put blocks of suburban land upon the market at a reasonable rate provides an effective and valuable control upon unhealthy land speculation and a means of stimulating the erection of good cheap houses at times when rising rents and bad housing accommodations begin to bear too hard on the working population and to disturb the labor market. Also the possession of this stock of reserve land has proved a great convenience and economy in connection with the various and increasingly numerous city institutions, and the enterprises of various sorts which a modern city is forced to establish, and for which it must purchase land under pressure if it has no reserve of land beyond that in actual use for its current needs. Thus many cities, looking back upon this history and looking forward to its probable repetition, have been led to become extensive purchasers of additional vacant lands, chiefly in the suburbs or outlying country.

The city of Duesseldorf, for example, has established a special Land Fund Department with a credit of a million and

a quarter dollars furnished by city bonds. It is the business of this department to acquire land against the future needs of the city. It has power to sell and lease, and it is required to pay the interest on the bonds issued on its account out of the rentals and the profits on sales. The city through this department is fairly and squarely in the real estate business. Whenever any other department of the city needs a piece of land held by the Land Fund, the lot is transferred and its value paid over to the fund by the department in question.

say that under American municipal conditions such a land fund department as that of Duesseldorf would safely be administered with sufficient honesty and efficiency to show any considerable profit. It might become a very hot-bed of corruption. But substantially the same opportunities for corruption exist under our present system of purchasing every piece of land as an emergency measure, with the added feature that indiscreet precipitancy and secrecy in closing a deal are often excused and covered by the need for prompt action.



CITY PLANNING ADAPTED TO IRREGULAR TOPOGRAPHY. DISTRICT BUILDING REGULATIONS ENFORCE DETACHED HOUSES WITH GARDENS AND PREVENT OBSTRUCTION OF VIEW BY BUILDINGS ON LEFT HAND SIDE OF LOWER STREET.

Just how many European cities are showing this increasing aggressiveness in acquiring and holding land, for miscellaneous purposes I cannot say, nor can I say whether the policy has had much influence as yet upon the physical plan of the cities concerned. But if it is pursued with tolerable intelligence and honesty, there can be little doubt that in the long run it will have a marked influence in supplementing the already notable tendency of systematic city planning to bring about a reasonable, convenient, and equitable distribution of playgrounds, squares, parks, and sites for schoolhouses and other public buildings.

He would be a rash man who should

In this matter of land policy it is interesting to note the rather extreme case of the town of Ulm in Wuerttemberg. It had a population of 42,997 in 1900, with a total area of 1,128 acres of building land inside the town limits. Since 1888 it has pursued an active policy of purchasing unimproved land, and of selling it off in lots at a reasonable price under careful restrictions to guard against speculation and overcrowding. By 1901 it owned more than three-fifths of the building land within the town and 2,926 acres outside the town boundaries, and had made enough profit out of its operations to pay for large expenditures on schools, street improvements, etc., with-

out raising its tax rate, which is much lower than that of other Wuerttemberg towns.¹ Many other cities which are large landowners might be cited if space allowed.

One of the most fundamentally important features of recent city planning in Europe has been the system of differentiated district building regulations. In America we are familiar with the principle in the case of districts developed by land companies and syndicates and by individual large owners of land. Its application in these cases is due to the recognized fact that a man who is going to buy a lot for any given purpose, will pay more for it if he can be tolerably certain that the surrounding property will not be developed in such a manner as to interfere with the satisfactory accomplishment of his purpose. But in America it is only where a unified ownership over a considerable area makes it possible to apply such district restrictions in a series of deeds, that we have any legal machinery for affording purchasers of lots this sort of neighborhood protection. We are all familiar with cases of the marked depreciation of property, especially of residential property, and of the forced breaking up of pleasant home neighborhoods, by the introduction of objectionable features on one or two lots. A tenement or apartment house set down in the midst of detached dwellings may produce such a change; or a livery stable or a factory or a saloon set down in the midst of lots whose occupants object seriously to such company. One selfish or shortsighted lot owner can ruin a neighborhood.

Now one of the purposes in view in the system of district building regulations, which forms a feature of recent city planning in Europe, is to give to every lot owner in each district in the city, a fair degree of assurance as to the kind of thing which may be done and which may not be done in the way of building, and of commercial and industrial occupations in the vicinity of his lot; to give him in other words the same kind of protection for which a man is willing to pay an extra price when he buys in a "restricted" neighborhood. Of

course it all depends on the nature of the restrictions. These are not fixed for any given district without full and repeated public hearings at which the views and wishes of the property owners are expressed and considered, and the endeavor is to give each district as nearly as possible just what it wants, to protect it from deterioration at the hands of a selfish minority, and to give stability to its real estate values.

As a matter of fact the real estate men of Hamburg, where I caused some inquiries to be made among them, state that the effect of the district building regulation plan there has been, in general, to raise values except in those districts where tenement houses are not prohibited, and that the tendency has been everywhere to greater stability of values and smaller speculative fluctuations.

Another purpose of the system of district building regulations has been to prevent the spread to outlying districts of certain classes of congested urban development, which are recognized as undesirable but which, in the absence of restrictions, have developed in the downtown districts as the inevitable result of economic causes. If there is no arbitrary limit to the crowding of the land, we know that in a growing city it pays the owner to crowd it far beyond what is desirable from a sanitary point of view. In almost every civilized city there are today building laws and tenement house laws which set a limit beyond which the rights of property are not permitted to squeeze the rights of humanity. Those limits must be fixed in a spirit of compromise between the vested interests of property and the ideal interests of health and human well-being, and in fixing them it is necessary to regard the existing values of the more congested property. But to fix the same limits all over the city is merely an invitation to make conditions everywhere equal to the worst. The alternative to this is some system of graduated district building regulations fixed for each locality so as not to curtail existing property values, but yet so as to prevent that locality from ever becoming as objection-

¹Horsfall.



A NEW "ONE SIDED" STREET ON A STEEP HILLSIDE. DISTRICT BUILDING REGULATIONS PERMIT NO BUILDINGS ON DOWN HILL SIDE TO OBSTRUCT THE VIEW.

ably crowded as the worst place in the city now is.

It has taken so much space to give any idea of the scope of city planning in Europe that very little can be said about its physical results. In the newer quarters there is to be seen, first, a reasonably good provision of main thorough-

fares, well planned and well equipped. The tendency appears to be to plan these to fit more closely to the topography and the traffic requirements, and less with a view to producing any particular, preconceived type of architectural effect than formerly. An instance of the better regard for traffic requirements is the avoid-



TYPE OF DISCARDED *ROND POINT* TREATMENT INTERRUPTING TRAFFIC ROUTES AND ENCOURAGING CONGESTION BY NEEDLESS CONCENTRATION OF THOROUGHFARES.

ance, so far as possible, of concentrating several lines of traffic upon a single point of intersection, as in the *ronds points* characteristic of the earlier French plans, and in the informal "knots" of streets often found in cities of accidental growth. Second, there is an increasingly liberal and equitable distribution of small parks and playgrounds as well as numerous small interesting squares, and minor enlargements of the streets, so arranged as not to interfere with the free movement of traffic. These are replacing the familiar but highly inconvenient and illogical circle or square so placed at the intersection of two or more important avenues as to block them and require a sharp detour. Washington is full of the latter and some of them are charming to look upon, but the art of city planning has reached a point where it demands in new plans a better adjustment of the type of beauty to practical function. Third, a good distribution of excellent public building sites is being provided, especially in connection with the squares, and on many of them some very interesting public buildings are being erected. Fourth, very notable facilities for commercial and manufacturing districts are being provided in connection with water fronts and railroads. When the city plan lays out a district with a special view to manufacture, it does not just cut it up into the standard streets and blocks and then leave the railways, the manufacturers and the teamsters to struggle with the transportation problem, but begins by laying out the necessary rights-of-way for the railroad facilities, and

provides long rows of factory sites of varying dimensions, sites with railroad sidings on one side and streets on the other, with the minimum of objectionable grade crossings and the maximum of convenience. Fifth, the newer districts are developing, under the influence of district building regulations, in a less crowded and much more homogeneous manner than in the past.

In closing I wish to point out that although we have an immense amount to learn from Europe, and especially from Germany, in regard to city planning, it would be very foolish for us to copy blindly what has been done there. Apart from the differences in climatic, economic, social and political conditions between European countries and America, there is need for some caution lest we copy the mistakes.

The Germans recognized fifteen years ago that they had made mistakes in city planning, they have made other mistakes since, they are probably making mistakes now; but they are watching the results and when they recognize a mistake they try to correct it. Here in America we seem to go on complacently perpetuating our old mistakes long after we have recognized them, preparing over again in our suburbs without material variation the same conditions that have given rise to results we deplore in the older parts of our cities.

How to change this helpless fatalism in our attitude toward the more fundamental factors of city growth, is what we most need to learn from the example of progressive European cities.

THE GIRLS' BILL

A HUMAN PROPOSITION

MARY E. McDOWELL

CHICAGO

"The girls have won!" was the friendly greeting between Chicago legislators, when, at the closing moments of the forty-sixth session of the Illinois Legislature, the vote was announced in favor of "the act to regulate and limit the hours of employment of females in any mer-

case was won by Louis Brandeis, whose unique brief was not only an unanswerable argument, but a document of such great interest that the everyday citizen found it readable and eloquent with facts well told. This brief was prepared by Miss Josephine Goldmark, sec-



Photo by Emmet V. O'Neill.

ALICE NESTOR.

cantile establishment, factory, or laundry, in order to safeguard the health of such employees."

After a hard fight, a ten-hour day law was passed, similar to the Oregon law that, a year ago, was pronounced constitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States and known as the case of *Curt Mueller v. State of Oregon*, which

retary of the National Consumers' League, under Mr. Brandeis's supervision.

The Illinois bill was printed on the calendar as Senate bill No. 497, but it was known familiarly in the Senate and House as the "girls' bill." In Chicago several conferences had been held on the question of what was the first legis-

lative move to make for the protection of working women. After much friendly discussion among those who had shown their wisdom in engineering social legislation, it was left to the working girls themselves to take the initial step. The Waitresses' Union (Local No. 484) announced that, no matter what others thought or did, they must introduce a straight eight-hour bill; for this they were pledged by the vote of their state organization. The Woman's Trade Union League of Illinois voted unanimously to give moral and financial support to the waitresses, and in every way to further the passage of their bill, thinking the fight would at least be an educational campaign, even if it were not successful at this session.

It will be remembered that, in 1893, Illinois had passed a law limiting the working day to eight hours; but in less than two years, in the case of *Ritchie v. People*, it was pronounced unconstitutional, on the ground of its being class legislation. Therefore, some of the best friends of working women felt that it was unwise to begin the legislative program for the protection of working women by bringing forward a bill for an eight-hour day, and advised for nine or nine and a half hours, or for the Oregon law. It is an interesting fact that, previous to the agitation for a national investigation of the working conditions of women and children, about five years ago, there was very little literature on working women and their condition, and less legislation for their protection. Twenty states had done something towards protecting them in their work, but the only prohibitory laws in the states were those which kept women out of the mines and prevented them from being bartenders in saloons. New York had secured a law prohibiting night work for women, but it was pronounced unconstitutional by three courts. However, since the Oregon decision and the spreading throughout the country by many organizations of that remarkable human document, the Brandeis brief, fourteen states have introduced legislation, and five of these states have enacted laws to protect working women.

Oregon amended her law to include

women working as telephone and telegraph operators and transportation workers. Rhode Island passed a fifty-six-hour week for women, to go into effect on January 1, 1910. In Missouri, the Women's Trade Union League introduced and passed a ten-hour day law with amendments exempting mercantile establishments during November and December. Michigan introduced legislation for the protection of working women, but it was lost. It was left to Illinois to have a campaign by working girls for working girls which began on March 10 and continued for seven weeks. As soon as Senator Clyde Walter Jones introduced the waitresses' bill, it was referred to the committee on labor, mines and mining, and as soon as the girls appeared before that committee and had a hearing, it was baptized the "girls' bill," which very human title it held through all its changes and compromises. It was Miss Elizabeth Maloney and Miss Annie Willard, of the Waitresses' Union, who brought forward the bill which Senator Jones so strongly championed, until he was convinced and, at last, was able to convince these zealous eight-hour day lobbyists that a new bill was necessary, if they were to hope for final success. After many conferences between all those interested, the Oregon law was taken as a model for the new bill, which will perhaps have to stand the test of the Illinois Supreme Court. The girls cannot say enough of Senator Jones's unfailing kindness and wise interest in their cause, from the beginning to the end. Very early, Miss Agnes Nestor, of the Gloveworkers' Union, and organizer for the Illinois Woman's Trade Union League, a young girl with a woman's head on her shoulders, showed a rare capacity for this new kind of disinterested lobbying, at which the modern woman seems to be an adept, and which is fast lifting the black cloud that enveloped the "lady lobbyist" of the past. The men conferred at every turn in the road with this little girl, whose instinct was so true and impulses so unselfish that her arguments, based upon her own real experience, carried conviction and won respect.

Let us go back fourteen years to the

campaign for the eight-hour day law for Illinois, and we will find even then a prophecy of the legislation for girls by girls; for, when in 1893 the eight-hour day law for women was enacted, a working girl did valiant service in the campaign. She was a member of the Bookbinders' Union, and was also an organizer for the American Federation of Labor, but, at that time, she was there as an individual, a union girl, without the backing of an organization. It was Mary Kenney (now Mrs. O'Sullivan of Boston) who was one of the pioneers of the modern lobbyist who lobbies for the weak and helpless, and she is still known in Massachusetts as a power in this field. A great advance was shown when, this year, the Woman's Trade Union League was able to bring to Springfield a group of trade union women, each backed by her organization. In several cases they had their expenses paid by their organization, and there was a goodly share of money for the campaign coming from girls who gave from one to ten dollars each, and from organizations which donated as high as one hundred dollars. The waitresses not only gave the services of three of their members, but subscribed money and, in the end, were willing to give up their own eight-hour bill for one that gave no relief to themselves, for they already had a ten-hour day in their trade. The bookbinder girls who had an eight-hour day, worked for those who were unorganized and unskilled and therefore helpless in securing better conditions. I do not know of any more unselfish piece of work than this of the organized working women of Illinois, who proved that only through organization are they able to do team work and, at the same time, have one member represent the group. The manufacturers of the state are organized for their interest and are able to secure money and power; it follows that the two hundred thousand working women of a great state like Illinois should also have an organized body to care for their interests, and it became inevitable that these two forces were to meet each other in the Legislature. When the girls' bill was reported out of the committee on labor, the secretary of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association sent

letters to members of the association, urging them to demand a second hearing, "because," he said, "it was unfair to hear the women's side and not the manufacturers'"; therefore, a joint hearing of the House and Senate was called to be held in the Senate chamber. He urged his members to come in large numbers; "because," he said, "you can depend upon it, the women will be here, a hundred strong."

The week that the girls' bill was introduced was also the time of the hearing on the municipal suffrage for women, when a special car brought to Springfield from Chicago and other parts of the state the strongest advocates for this and all allied questions relating to the rights and duties of motherkind. Jane Addams and Miss Anna Nichols, with Agnes Nestor and Miss Maloney, all charter members of the Woman's Trade Union League and also members of the Suffrage Association, appeared before the labor committee to speak on the eight-hour bill, which was reported favorably that same day. It was woman's week at the capital. The Municipal Suffrage Association, which was there in such large numbers, had among its workers from the first representatives from the ranks of women's labor organizations; for the women of leisure had recognized that they and the working women had a common bond in securing votes for both.

It was a dramatic moment when, at the hearing of the joint committee in the Senate chamber, the Manufacturers' Association (reported to have three hundred members present), lined up on one side, and on the other the Woman's Trade Union League, with nine trades, each represented by a member, and the president, Mrs. Raymond Robbins, with several other allies of the league. Each side was in dead earnest; one represented the human and the other the business interest.

Three representatives of the Manufacturers' Association and three representatives of the Woman's Trade Union League were chosen to speak. Each side had its attorney to deal with the question of constitutionality. When the employers' attorney had finished, then the attorney for the Woman's Trade Union

League gave his argument, citing extracts from the brief of the Oregon case that had proved so conclusively to the Supreme Court the effect of over-fatigue on the health of working women. The Manufacturers' Association chose a clothing manufacturer to speak for it on this day. On the girls' side were representatives of the boot and shoe workers, glove workers, laundry workers, suspender workers, necktie makers, garment workers and box-makers. These working girls who seldom before had spoken outside their unions and who never before had met their employers face to face, except in dickering for an agreement or in settling a labor dispute, met them now as equals in the capital of the state, where they were asking, for the sake of the welfare of that state, that their health and rights be conserved by law and that future generations be protected. Each representative of the nine trades was ready, if called upon, to give testimony from her own experience as to the dangers of the long working day. For instance, Miss Louise Holly, a laundry worker, had worked out the problem of just how many thousand times she had to tread the ironing-machine in order to iron her five hundred shirts a day. She afterwards gave this testimony before a committee. Two of the manufacturers' associations had brought girls from their factories to prove by their presence before the committee that they were not in favor of a shorter working day. Petitions also were presented by manufacturers from their women employes against the bill. When the employers were asked who prepared these petitions, they were compelled to confess that it was the superintendent of the shop. In one mill employing 1,600 women, only 167 signed the petition. In this mill were printed signs telling the girls that if the eight-hour day law were passed, they would lose their Saturday half-holiday and would receive less wages. In another shop the girls were told that the business would have to move out of the state.

Miss Agnes Nestor and Miss Elizabeth Maloney were chosen as spokeswomen for the girls on that day, before the joint committee, and never before, in

the history of Illinois legislation had such champions spoken from the rostrum. Agnes Nestor, the secretary of the International Glove Workers' Union, was so short that a stool was brought for her to stand on. The room was crowded; not even a seat in the gallery and no room on the floor. With intense interest, both legislators, manufacturers and the working girls listened to the discussion. Miss Nestor's fine young face showed that her energy and nervous force had been, as she said, "used up in the experience of nine years of piece work and of the ten-hour day." She said:

This is a human as well as a financial question. A great many employers give as their reason for preferring the piece work system and establishing it as much as possible, that they are only paying for the work they receive and have more work turned out in a day. This, no doubt, is true, but it is too often at the expense of the girl. For she pays not only the loss of time but the loss of her health. I am one of the many who are very much against this system, for I have seen too many awful results from it. Girls have only a certain amount of strength and energy, and if this is to be used up the first few years at the trade, what is to become of the workers after that? This system, moreover, encourages a girl to do more than her physical strength will allow her to do continuously. Piece work is worry as well as work. For nine years I worked at piece work and for two years was under a nervous specialist.

She told her own story, which was also that of the thousands of overworked, overstrained girls in Illinois, in such a simple, self-forgetful manner that her power was felt at once.

Miss Maloney, of the waitresses, made a telling plea for the bill, speaking not only for those of her occupation, but for all who were weary with overwork. She wittily answered the clothing-maker who had accused the "ladies" who were working for this bill, of being of the class that brought the great pressure at certain seasons, as he instanced, Easter, when they would and must have their hats. He was hitting at the woman allies of the girls in their legislative campaign, but Miss Maloney remarked that, in this matter of Easter millinery, it was the wives and daughters of the manufacturers who got their Easter hats before Easter, but the working girls who were

fighting for this bill have to wait until the prices are marked down. She aroused a sympathetic laugh when in closing her remarks, she made an apt allusion to the estimate of government investigators that waitresses in a ten-hour day walked ten miles, and asked those present if they did not think eight hours a day were enough for any woman to walk. The bill would have been won at that moment if a vote could have been taken, so stirred were the men who never before had heard the objects of legislation plead out of their own human experience in such a direct and genuine manner.

Many of the legislators and manufacturers came up to the girls at the adjournment of the meeting, shook them by the hand and said: "Girls, we are against your bill, but we must say we like your speeches," and the girls that were brought from the mills of other towns to lend their presence against the shorter working day, showed by their faces that this experience was a liberal education to them.

After the session it was interesting to see in the lobby each one of the working girls representing the nine different trades, the center of a group of manufacturers or superintendents, discussing earnestly the justice of the shorter work day, and as the girls, out of their very real experiences, talked to these men, one could see that it was not easy for them to meet a human proposition, when they were used to deal simply with the dollar proposition. The press said that no piece of legislation during this session had created so much interest and met with such fierce opposition as this piece of human legislation, except the fight for senatorship which had been going on for months. This was a non-partisan struggle, championed and engineered by republicans, aided by democrats. The spirit throughout was fine, and the attitude of the

men toward the girls was so businesslike, that the girls said they had no unpleasant experiences to recall. As Agnes Nestor put it, "We were treated as man to man."

It was characteristic of this picturesque struggle that both sides showed the real sportsmanlike spirit, as instanced by the following: When the fight was over and Agnes Nestor, the leader of the girls' side, and the secretary of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association were purchasing their tickets at the railroad station, the secretary said to Miss Nestor: "Well, you put up a good fight and won, and I congratulate you." She answered, naively, "And don't you feel awful bad?" and he replied, laughingly, "Oh, no; I have been up against this kind of thing too often." One cannot help wondering if it would be possible to bring manufacturers' associations and legislators to comprehend that great waste of time, money, and temper might be prevented if they could appreciate that women have a program for the protection of the three million wage-earning girls in the United States; a program that says no night work and an eight-hour day; protected machinery; ventilated rooms; seats with backs; separate toilet and wardrobe rooms, and the prohibition of married women working before and after childbirth. And this program, from this time on, will be carried out bit by bit, until the wage-earning women in the United States shall be able to work under conditions that are upbuilding and not demoralizing. This experience in Illinois of girls working to secure legislation for girls has taught us that working women must be urged and trained to look after their own interests. We believe their employers feel less irritated than when philanthropists interfere. The girls' campaign in Illinois gave to themselves and to legislators and to manufacturers a new view of the modern woman.

AN EXTENSION OF THE POLICE POWER

LAWRENCE VEILLER

DIRECTOR DEPARTMENT FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS, NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

The Supreme Court of the United States on May 17 handed down a decision which promises to be of far-reaching effect in its influence upon the improvement of social conditions, a decision equal in importance almost to the famous case of *Health Department v. Rector*. The present decision is one which addresses itself to the constitutionality of the enactment by a state legislature, of laws limiting the heights of buildings in a different way in different parts of the same city, the whole question of the reasonable exercise of the police power of the state being thus involved. The significance and importance of this decision in its influence upon further advance in housing legislation and the prevention of the growth of new slums in outlying sections of large cities, cannot be overstated. Hitherto it has not been believed to be possible by those especially familiar with housing matters legally to restrict the kinds of houses that can be erected in different parts of a city and to discriminate between various sections of the same community.

The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court, however, in the case of *Welch v. Swasey*, would seem to hold that it is within the power of the Legislature to enact laws of this kind.

The question arose with regard to two acts of the Massachusetts Legislature, passed in 1904 and 1905 (chapter 333, Acts of 1904, and chapter 383, Acts of 1905). In 1904 the Legislature of Massachusetts passed an act dividing the city of Boston into two districts, and provided that in one district, which might be termed the business section, no building of any kind whatever should in the future be erected to a height of more than 125 feet; and in the other district, which was practically a residence district, no building should be erected to a height of more than eighty feet. Certain arbitrary boundary lines were laid down for each district, and by the terms of

the act these boundaries were to be continued for a period of fifteen years. The next year the Legislature passed another act, by which a commission of three members was to be appointed by the mayor of Boston to determine, in accordance with certain conditions, the height of buildings within the so-called residence district. This commission was empowered to establish boundaries of such parts of such districts as it might designate, in which buildings might be erected to a height of over eighty feet but not over 100 feet; and further the height between eighty and 100 feet should be established and the conditions under which buildings might be erected to such height. In other words, the latter act was rather in the nature of an exception to the earlier one, removing some of its rigidity and permitting the erection of buildings a little higher, within the discretion of the local board. It was these acts and their constitutionality and the right of a Legislature to impose different conditions in different parts of a city that were tested in the case at bar. The plaintiff sought to erect in the residence section of the city, a building 120 feet, 6 inches high, and the local authorities refused a permit for the plans. An appeal was taken from the decision of the building commissioner to a board of appeal, and upon the board of appeal sustaining the building commissioner, mandamus proceedings were begun in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts.

It was admitted by the plaintiff that the action of the building commissioner and of the board of appeal was entirely lawful and right in the event of the act being constitutional, so that the question arose almost entirely on the right of the Legislature in the exercise of the police power, to prohibit the erection of buildings of a certain height in one part of the city while permitting them in another part.

The decision of the United States Supreme Court in this case, written by Mr. Justice Peckham, practically decides that the United States Supreme Court will follow the determination of the state court in passing upon the validity of such legislation under the state constitution. In his opinion, Judge Peckham says:

... We come, then, to an examination of the question whether these statutes with reference to limitations on height between eighty and 100 feet and in no case greater than 100 feet are valid. There is here a discrimination or classification between sections of the city, one of which, the business or commercial part, has a limitation of 125 feet, and the other, used for residential purposes, has a permitted height of buildings from eighty to 100 feet.

The statutes have been passed under the exercise of the so-called police power, and they must have some fair tendency to accomplish or aid in the accomplishment of some purpose. If the statutes are not of that kind, then their passage cannot be justified under that power. These principles have been so frequently decided as not to require the citation of many authorities. If the means employed, pursuant to the statute, have no real, substantial relation to a public object which government can accomplish; if the statutes are arbitrary and unreasonable and beyond the necessities of the case; the courts will declare their invalidity . . .

In passing upon questions of this character as to the validity and reasonableness of a discrimination or classification in relation to limitations as to height of buildings in a large city, the matter of locality assumes an important aspect. The particular circumstances prevailing at the place or in the state where the law is to become operative; whether the statute is really adapted, regard being had to all the different and material facts, to bring about the results desired from its passage; whether it is well calculated to promote the general and public welfare, are all matters which the state court is familiar with, but a like familiarity cannot be ascribed to this court, assuming judicial notice may be taken of what is or ought to be generally known. For such reason this court, in cases of this kind, feels the greatest reluctance in interfering with the well-considered judgments of the courts of a state whose people are to be affected by the operation of the law. The highest court of the state in which statutes of the kind under consideration are passed is more familiar with the particular causes which led to their passage (although they may be of a public nature) and with the general situation surrounding the subject-matter of the legislation than this court can possibly be. We do not, of course, intend to say that under such circumstances the

judgment of the state court upon the question will be regarded as conclusive, but simply that it is entitled to the very greatest respect, and will only be interfered with, in cases of this kind, where the decision is, in our judgment, plainly wrong. In this case the Supreme Judicial Court of the state holds the legislation valid, and that there is a fair reason for the discrimination between the height of buildings in the residential as compared with the commercial districts. That court has also held that regulations in regard to the height of buildings, and in regard to their mode of construction in cities, made by legislative enactments for the safety, comfort or convenience of the people and for the benefit of property owners generally, are valid. Attorney General *v. Williams*, 174 Mass., 476. We concur in that view, assuming, of course, that the height and conditions provided for can be plainly seen to be not unreasonable or inappropriate.

In relation to the discrimination or classification made between the commercial and the residential portion of the city, the state court holds in this case that there is reasonable ground therefor, in the very great value of the land and the demand for space in those parts of Boston where a greater number of buildings are used for the purposes of business or commercially than where the buildings are situated in the residential portion of the city, and where no such reasons exist for high buildings. While so deciding the court cited, with approval, *Commonwealth v. Boston Advertising Company*, 188 Mass., 348, which holds that the police power cannot be exercised for a merely aesthetic purpose. . . .

We are not prepared to hold that this limitation of eighty to 100 feet, while in fact a discrimination or classification, is so unreasonable that it deprives the owner of the property of its profitable use without justification, and that he is therefore entitled under the constitution to compensation for such invasion of his rights. The discrimination thus made is, as we think, reasonable, and is justified by the police power.

The reasons contained in the opinion of the state court are in our view sufficient to justify their enactment. The judgment is therefore affirmed.

What the effect of such a decision will be in other states it is hard to predict. Were a similar case to arise in New York state, would the Court of Appeals there feel obliged to follow the decision of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, or would the judges of our Court of Appeals take a different view of the exercise of the police power?

The decision of the United States Su-

preme Court in following the views of the state court throws us back upon the opinion of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts for guidance as to the principles which are likely to control in similar cases. The opinion of that court, therefore, becomes of special interest. That decision, written by Justice Knowlton, contains much of great interest to social workers as elucidating the principles governing the exercise of the police power and having especial reference to the possibility of discriminating in housing laws between various parts of a community. In his opinion, Judge Knowlton says:

The principal question presented by this case is whether the Statutes 1904 chapter 333 and the Statutes 1905 chapter 383 and the orders of the commissioners appointed under them, relative to the height of buildings in Boston, are constitutional. . . . The principal question may be subdivided as follows: First, can the Legislature, in the exercise of the police power, limit the height of buildings in cities so that none can be erected above a prescribed number of feet; second, can it classify parts of a city so that in some parts one height is prescribed and in others a different height. . . . In the exercise of the police power the Legislature may regulate and limit personal rights and rights of property in the interest of the public health, public morals and public safety. . . . With considerable strictness of definition, the general welfare may be made a ground, with others, for interference with rights of property, in the exercise of the police power. . . . The erection of very high buildings in cities, especially upon narrow streets, may be carried so far as materially to exclude sunshine, light and air, and thus to affect the public health. It may also increase the danger to persons and property from fire, and be a subject for legislation on that ground. These are proper subjects for consideration in determining whether, in a given case, rights of property in the use of land should be interfered with for the public good. . . . The next question is whether the general court may establish different heights for different neighborhoods, according to their conditions and the uses to which the property in them is put. The statute should be adapted to the accomplishment of the purposes in which it finds its constitutional justification. It should be reasonable, not only in reference to the interests of the public, but also in reference to the rights of landowners. If these rights and interests are in conflict in any degree, the opposing considerations should be balanced

against each other, and each should be made to yield reasonably to those upon the other side. The value of land and the demand for space, in those parts of Boston where the greater part of the buildings are used for purposes of business or commerce, is such as to call for buildings of greater height than are needed in those parts of the city where the greater part of the buildings are used for residential purposes. It was, therefore, reasonable to provide in the statute that buildings might be erected to a greater height in the former parts of the city than in the latter, even if some of the streets in the former are narrower than those in the latter.

The general subject is one that calls for a careful consideration of conditions existing in different places. In many cities there would be no danger of the erection of high buildings in such locations and of such a number as to affect materially the public health or public safety, and no statutory restrictions are necessary. Such restrictions in this country are of very recent origin, and they are still uncommon. Unless they place the limited height at an extreme point, beyond which hardly any one would ever wish to go, they should be imposed only in reference to the uses for which the real estate probably will be needed, and the manner in which the land is laid out, and the nature of the approaches to it.

It was decided in *Commonwealth v. Boston Advertising Co.*, 188 Mass., 348, that a statute of this kind cannot constitutionally be passed for a mere aesthetic object. It was said in *Attorney General v. Williams*, 174 Mass., 476, 480, that the statute then before the court, enacted under the right of eminent domain, with compensation for landowners, would have been unconstitutional if it had been passed "to preserve the architectural symmetry of Copley Square," or "merely for the benefit of individual property owners." The inhabitants of a city or town cannot be compelled to give up rights in property or to pay taxes, for purely aesthetic objects; but if the primary and substantive purpose of the legislation is such as justifies the act, considerations of taste and beauty may enter in, as auxiliary. We are of opinion that the provision of the St. 1904, c. 333, for dividing parts of the city into two classes, in each of which there is a prescribed limit for the height of buildings, was within the power of the Legislature, and in accordance with the constitutional principle applicable to the enactment.

The importance of these decisions to all persons interested in city planning, as well as in the further extension of housing reform, becomes at once apparent.

SUMMER VACATIONS FOR WORKING GIRLS

AMY E. SPINGARN

The Committee on Amusements and Vacation Resources of Working Girls in New York, organized by Mrs. Charles H. Israels in the autumn of 1908, has suggested to me the investigation and tabulation of the organized efforts to provide the working girls of New York city with a summer vacation. In January of this year printed blanks containing eighteen questions were sent out to a hundred and thirty institutions, in-

cluding the churches, settlements, clubs, department stores and vacation societies. In estimating the conclusions of these researches something must be allowed for possible omission, but every effort has been made to make this investigation as inclusive as possible.

Fifteen institutions failed to answer, and no information has been obtainable in regard to them. Of the 115 institutions that replied, twenty-five possessed

Working Girls' Vacation Society. 8 Houses. Jewish Working Girls' Vacation Society. 2 Houses.

Number of girls accommodated during summer	806	652
Average length of stay.....	2 weeks.	2 weeks.
Weekly rates	Either \$4 or \$5 or what they can afford or free. At Santa Clara the rate is \$7. But needy cases are entertained free for four weeks; girls often repay one or two years later. After that something like \$1.50-\$4 has to be paid. \$3 is the rate, but many girls pay only part of this or are entertained free.	
How long is the house open?...	One of the Santa Clara houses is open from May 1 to October 15, but most of the seven other houses are open from the middle or end of June to the 15th of September.	July 1 to September 1.
Income of girls.....	\$1 to \$16.	
Is house always full?.....	50 per cent answer yes. The other 50 per cent do not respond.	Yes.
Average age	Huguenot, 21. Chester, 14 to 60. Westport, 17. Hill Crest, Santa Clara, 26.	
Average number who come free...	Huguenot, 75 per cent. Hill Crest, 50 per cent to 75 per cent. Breezy Corner, many come free.	Some; number varies.
What per cent returns year after year?.....	50 per cent or more.	
Are there special rates of fare?..	Yes, in all cases.	
Are there arrangements for week ends?.....	None.	None.
Is the house co-operative?.....	The girls care for their own rooms.	
Types of girls.....	Factory and sales girls, teachers, dressmakers and stenographers.	
What are the methods of advertisement?.....	There are none except through reports and appeals for funds in the papers. The various societies know and apply. Also one of the big department stores.	
	Through circulars and posters in the manufacturing districts, at the Educational Alliance and at the Emanuel Sisterhood.	

vacation resources. The committee is interested only in the fate of unmarried women earning their own livelihood and over thirteen years of age. The statistics which follow take account only of these.

The following institutions have resources of this kind: Churches, 6; department stores, 2; vacation societies, 2; clubs and settlements, 15. The two large vacation societies head the list; the Working Girls' Vacation Society entertained 806 girls last summer at its eight houses. The Jewish Working Girls' Vacation Society entertained 652 at Belleport, L. I., and at Big Indian in the Catskills. The questions on the preceding page were answered by these vacation societies.

The following clubs and settlements provide vacations for the girls under consideration:

College Settlement, East Side Settlement, University Settlement, Hartley House, Henry Street Settlement, Wesley House is starting on its first year of summer work, and is therefore not included in the totals; Union Settlement, Christodora House, Downtown Ethical Society, Hudson Guild, New York Association of Working Girls' Clubs, The Friendly Aid Society, The Girls' Friendly Society in the Diocese of New York, the Y. W. C. A. of New York, the Y. W. C. A. of Brooklyn.

CLUBS AND SETTLEMENTS.

Number of girls accommodated..	3,563
Average length of stay.....	2 weeks.
Rates per week..	\$3.60 for seniors. \$3.15 for juniors. (Two places include railroad fare.)
How long are the houses open?..	11 2-5 weeks.
Are the houses always full?...All are almost always overcrowded. (The New York Association of Working Girls' Clubs which has two houses at Miller's place, L. I., is the only one to answer "no" to this question.)	
Average age ...	18¼ years.
Average number entertained free, 66	2-3 per cent entertain a few free. 20 per cent have none free. Hartley House accepts part payment.
Per cent returning each year..	Over 75.

How many have special railroad rates?

66 2-3 have a special rate.

How many have week end accommodations?

73 1-3 have them, in most cases only when there is room. but only one place, Christodora House, makes a feature of it. Hartley House entertains its clubs that way in spring and fall. Several places entertain parties over July 4 and Labor Day.

Income of girls.

\$5.95 1-6 to \$10.

Are the houses co-operative?...

In most of them the girls make their beds and assist with the light housework.

Types

Factory, stores, office help, a few nurses, domestics, dressmakers, teachers, high school girls.

What are the methods of advertisement? ..

Only 20 per cent make any attempt to reach larger circles through advertising.

80 per cent do not advertise except perhaps in house papers.

Two other settlements make use of the working girls' vacation society. Hamilton House sends its girls there for two weeks and pays their board. Kennedy House sends its girls to the Farmington Lodge of the Working Girls' Vacation Society or to a private boarding house and generally pays for their board. The Gospel Settlement depends on Sea Breeze, Montclair and Nyack for its summer work. Greenpoint Settlement in Brooklyn has a very few young girls over fourteen in its summer camp. It makes a point of having whole families and giving them a vacation together. The other girls in the settlement belong to the Lucy Larcom Club of the New York Association of Working Girls' Clubs and avail themselves of the Miller's Place Vacation House. St. Rose's Settlement confines its summer work to children, but last year it sent three girls between sixteen and eighteen to the Dominican Sisters at Albany. Expenses were paid. And thirty senior working girls were given two days' outing at the beach with money taken partly from the club funds. The Manhattan Girls' Club which formerly did summer work has now discontinued.

STORES

As regards the stores there are but two that have organized summer work. Bloomingdale's and Siegel & Cooper's have vacation houses at Long Branch and Far Rockaway, respectively.

Several repeated efforts have failed to elicit any answers from either Hearn's

concerned in their welfare and would gladly welcome suggestions regarding better vacation facilities.

CHURCHES

Before touching upon the churches, I should like to mention the Chapel Hill Fresh Air Mission with its pleasant sum-

	Bloomingdale Brothers.	Siegel & Cooper.
Number of girls accommodated..	300 to 400.	About 720.
Average length of stay.....	7 days.	7 days.
Rates weekly	Free to the girls; board paid by the aid association and the firm.	Free.
House open.....	June 15 to September 15.	June 15 to September 1 to 7, depending on the weather.
Is the house always full?.....	Yes.	Yes.
Per cent returning each year....	Large percentage:	50
Fare	\$1 on Erie Railroad; special rate.	Full.
Week ends	None.	None.
Is the house co-operative?.....	Girls make their beds.	The girls make their beds and are trained in the standards of living.
Types of girls.....	Female employes of Bloomingdale Bros.	Only female employes of Siegel & Cooper who have been in their employ over seven months.

or O'Neill & Adams, which is the more to be regretted as Mr. Hearn especially is known to take an active interest in the welfare of his employes. The officers of Wanamaker's Beneficial Association, a most efficient and well-organized body, which looks after the interests of all the girls, believe that during the two weeks with full pay that are granted to every employe, she should leave behind her all that smacks of store life. The beneficial association takes charge of all needy cases. One of its aims is to make it possible for every girl to have a holiday. Ehrich Brothers send many of their girls through the Association of Working Girls' Societies. It is to be regretted that two of the large stores employing the largest working forces in the city were unwilling to contribute anything to this investigation save a rather curt statement that they were not in a position to furnish any information. This is all the more regrettable as one of them is known to have a vacation house in Monroe, N. J. Another store on the other hand answers that, though at present it has no house or hotel to which to send its employes, it is deeply

mer home near Atlantic Highlands. The trustees of this fully equipped and furnished house wish to place it at the disposal of an organized charity who will run it at their expense. It has been loaned to the Tribune Fresh Air Fund for two seasons, and offered to it again for the coming summer.

The following churches are the only ones of those communicated with who answered that they were doing summer work: The Holy Trinity Church of Brooklyn, Grace Church, St. Mark's, St. Bartholomew's, Grace Emanuel and St. Thomas's. I do not include in this list the Protestant Episcopal City Mission which has vacation facilities for people of all ages, and entertains a number of working girls every year. Neither do I make mention of the Neighborhood House of the Spring Street Church, which accommodated nearly 600 guests last summer including forty working girls between the ages of seventeen and thirty. This house has had to follow the example of the Salvation Army and close its doors at least for the coming year. I also will fully omit St. George's Memorial House,

a few of whose older girls go to their seaside cottage and others are sent through the Working Girls' Vacation Society, but the majority are cared for through the Girls' Friendly Society and have therefore been already included in another tabulation. The Judson Memorial Church sends a very few girls over fourteen to its summer home at Somerville, New Jersey; St. John Baptist House has a free cottage at Mendham, chiefly for the parishioners of the Holy Cross Mission, to which the same girls come year after year, but I have no idea of their number. I should also like to mention that the Presbyterian Church of the Sea and Land yearly sends a party of girls to Saybrook, but it is impossible to include any of these places in the tabulation, as the slight provision they make for working girls does not warrant it.

CHURCHES.

Number of girls accommodated..	833
Average length of stay	14 days.
Average rate per week	\$3.18 for girls under 16. \$3.83 for girls over 16.
House open	9 4-5 weeks.
Is house always full?	Yes, in almost every case.
Average age ...	19
Average number free	50 per cent of these houses are free, but the others make exceptions.
Per cent returning each year..	About 90.
Are there special fares?	Five out of six have them.
Are there week end accommodations?	40 per cent have. 40 per cent have not. One place does not answer. Two places have parties for July 4 and Labor Day.
Types of girls..	Factory, shop, office girls chiefly. And a few high school girls.
Remarks	These are virtually branches of parish work, and with a few exceptions touch only parishioners.

This investigation has led to the following conclusions:

The circle of girls at present reached is confined in narrow limits. In many

cases the same girls return year after year to the same homes. Moreover the large stores take care only of their own employes, churches of their own parishioners, the clubs and settlements of their own members. The scope of vacation activities should be widened so as to include an ever larger group of working girls.

Such facilities as are open to all are not sufficiently advertised. Very few institutions make any attempt to spread a knowledge of their resources among working women.

A central and permanent bureau of information should be established, which should not only advertise the general resources of the city in this regard, but more especially, should serve as a channel through which vacation opportunities might be made known to working girls. Applicants of certain sects could be sent on to institutions of their own denomination. Others could be told where there were vacancies. In this way the group of women reached would be widened. This bureau might also carry on a propaganda among stores, factories and offices. Work of this sort is what strikes an investigator as the most crying need of the present situation.

The facilities for week-end vacations are most restricted. Special places are needed where girls can be sent from Saturday to Monday with very slight expense. It is unnecessary to dwell on the value of the recuperative and inspiring effects of such holidays in proper surroundings.

The most striking fact is of course the inadequacy of the accommodations in respect to the number of working women in New York who, by the census of 1900, numbered 367,437. Of these, 294,828 are classified as single, and 261,081 fall between the ages of ten and thirty-five. Nine years have surely worked a vast change and swollen the ranks of the army of working girls; but nevertheless a comparison of either of these figures with that of the 6,874 girls for whom the clubs, settlements, churches and stores of New York provide vacations during the summer is, to say the least, disheartening. A trifle over 2½ per cent are

provided for. It is safe to assume that if the number of working girls in 1909 was known this percentage would shrink from $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent to 2 or even $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Of course this represents only organized and official effort. It is impossible to take into account the number of girls who are able and willing to pay for a summer vacation or those who are benefited by individual acts of kindness, the isolated cases where a generous employer or a philanthropic patron may select one or more girls for a vacation in the country.

But regardless of such cases, the organized means of providing summer vacations for working girls at reasonable expense are sadly inadequate. Of the forty-four settlements, clubs and vacation societies written to, seventeen or 38.7-11 per cent have summer homes for working girls. Of the twenty big dry goods stores in New York and Brooklyn, three have summer homes, although many of the others allow employes a vacation with full pay. But the churches have almost completely ignored this

phase of social effort. Of the 1,257 churches and synagogues of New York and Brooklyn, apparently only six have organized summer vacations for working girls. Even allowing for the fact that many churches may privately help individual cases, this would seem to indicate that the organized social program of the modern church is wholly ineffectual in this one respect.

The average wage being between six and ten dollars, an average rate of board at four dollars, with fare to be paid beside, is beyond the means of most girls in summer. The younger working girls who earn five and six dollars a week and who are most in need of the rest and change are almost wholly neglected as a class by such provisions. There being so few week-end resources, the public amusement places with their doubtful attractions are all that is left. The mothers and babies and boys are in the plans for the summer but the young girl is a factor that needs inclusion or important loss in the social scheme will become apparent.

SOCIAL SERVICE CLUBS IN THE LIGHT OF EXPERIENCE

W. H. KINNICUTT, M. D.

CLEVELAND

When the grip bacillus gets attached to one's system, the individual who entertains it unawares and his immediate associates are not left long in ignorance of the fact; there is an active demonstration—it insists upon expression. When the impulse of altruism finds a place in one's sympathies, it exhibits similar infectiousness and breaks into action eagerly, if not always intelligently.

The spirit of knightly chivalry finds its modern expression in "social service." The desire to right other's wrongs and to establish their rights finds ample field in modern society where one man's gain seems to be at another's cost.

"Social service" as an organized expression of good will holds a peculiar position among modern institutions; it seems to dread, more than anything else,

being considered a religious movement; while, on the other hand, professedly Christian institutions fear it because it bears Christian fruit without the accompaniment of doctrine or dogma—it just does things because they ought to be done. It is not concerned about formulas or credit or institutional conservation—just accomplishment. So its simple organization is open to all who wish to search out the intelligent way to relieve the ills that ail society.

Many will balk at the unlimitation of the "social service" plan; they want a restraining clause, a brake, an anchor, a drag,—something which will act as a safety device when the energy of the group exceeds their own individual speed, pressure or courage limit. Such had better stay out; they have not the

"social service" spirit. They would venture an airship—if they could carry a ladder; or patriotic enlistment—with the guarantee of no fighting. Shun them!

The men who are attracted to "social service" may or may not be the striking figures in the community; they may often be the well-to-do, as often not; but there are certain characteristics which they will have in common: self-reliance, intelligence, "Pauline" charity, dependability and, to paraphrase the modern working standard, "good circulation in the pedal extremities" and be "not over-nervous when the locomotive and its train passes." All others, whatever their faith, station or prominence, may be dispensed with. It is well to limit the club membership; from twenty-five to forty gives a good working group, preference being with the lesser number. This compels careful selection.

The great feature of a social service organization is its purpose. "To do" is all that needs emphasis. A few officers to insure cohesiveness, and enough constitution to indicate that the club intends to do those things which need doing, which no one will thank it for doing, and which, when done, no one will attribute to it. It is evident that such work can best be done "on the quiet," so the club should be known only to its members. To exploit it is to defeat its best efficiency.

What can such a club do? That will depend on your community. While there are certain social problems like child labor, tenement housing, impure food, which are indigenous to every city, each has its special burdens of local significance which may well engage the time, study and energy of such a group of men. There are industrial conditions that may be improved by health, safety, or comfort devices, which will make labor less enervating and depressing; sanitary changes which may relieve or prevent epidemic; abuses of public privilege or office, for organized protest; community morale which may need but intelligent study to set public condemnation loose; court methods and penal institutions to suspect and inspect; the rights of the poor and methods of charity distribution to be considered; impositions

upon the public of every kind to be overthrown; all that aims at making life more worth living in home, shop, ward or city, furnishes the realm in which social service finds its work.

As to method, there is no empiricism, no one way to accomplish a given result. Sometimes it may be possible to co-operate with other organizations; but as a rule, it is wiser to do your work within your own club membership. If you co-operate, do not let the club be known. Success depends upon the intelligence and earnestness of the investigator. What is desired is to find and correct the cause of known evil effects.

I recall the process of establishing a municipal bath house, where the steps in the plan had to be discovered as the findings developed. It is a fairly typical case.

First, there was the allotting of parts of the residence territory for investigation among members of the club. Each had designated streets in which each house was to be examined for number of tenements, families, adults and children, water supply, sanitation and bath facilities. When every house in the district had been "covered" the facts were correlated and tabulated. These returns were then adroitly introduced into a committee of the business men's organization. This committee in turn brought the facts before that influential body with the recommendation of a public bath-house. This was officially endorsed and recommended to the city council. Meantime the members of the council were visited by club members and educated as to the need for public baths and as to how other cities had met similar conditions. When the businessmen's organization's recommendation came before them the councilmen were ready to treat it favorably and immediately authorized the construction.

Next, it was found that special legislation was necessary in order to issue bonds. Delay in the state capitol threatened, so a lobby was appointed by the club which brought the necessary influence to bear to get recognition and authorization of such bonds by the state authorities. Incidentally, the club was able to effect the plans and specifications for

the building which in due time was erected.

The club then influenced the choice of a superintendent equipped to conduct the plant to the greatest advantage of the people and with the least political flavoring. After a year's effort there appeared a splendidly equipped bathhouse with conveniences for men, women and children, set tubs for family laundry work and a gymnasium for the neighborhood. Its first year showed a record of 135,000 individual baths and the year just finished showed 232,000. A similar house in another congested district has since been completed and equipped.

The inception and development of another enterprise is fairly illustrative of what may develop from small social efforts when the spirit to do all that can be done actuates.

Two hundred and fifty dollars had been placed in the hands of the club treasurer to help establish a certain hospital. It was found upon investigation that this work was adequately accomplished by other agencies. The money, however, was left for such beneficent purposes as might seem wise.

One of the members discovered a case in which a poor woman had been deprived of her sewing machine through inability to keep up payment upon it. She had resorted to loans from a "family" loan company and the exorbitant interest accumulated faster than payments could reduce the principal. The club investigated the entire transaction and through suasive and legal means compelled both parties to come to reasonable terms; they rescued the sewing machine from replevin and the woman from the loan shark. After a reasonable time the money was returned by the grateful

woman and this little fund of two hundred and fifty dollars has been used many times in similar relief.

The investigation, however, of the loan company methods indicated the need of a humane agency for emergency relief. At once a loan association with a conscience was projected, promoted and established. Stock was sold on the basis of a philanthropic investment which should be self-supporting. Since its incorporation, the capital has been increased to \$50,000, and under a directorate of sound business men has realized all that was expected of it during the three years of its existence.

The following schedule suggests in part what this club has accomplished.

A juvenile court and effective probation system.

An industrial farm for juvenile delinquents.

Investigated and recommended 1,200 jurors for a year's drawing.

Investigation of lodging houses and abolishing of the undesirable.

Examination of sources of city food supply with recommendations to health board.

Service by members in election booths, insuring honest returns at strategic points.

Relation to public playgrounds and furnishing men for their direction.

Investigation of work of justices of the peace and election effort in behalf of worthy candidates.

Securing salary of "shop betterment" expert for two years' service, with phenomenal improvements in working conditions.

Promoting and incorporating a loan association for workingmen with humane rates of interest.

Investigation of dance halls with consequent regulation.

Co-operation with the forces working for rational child labor laws.

A good working plan: undertake something worth while, focus upon it and see it through to its successful finish—then tackle the next worthy proposition.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

MAKING PEACE TO DO JUSTICE

The success of the special Industrial Commission of Illinois in securing the enactment of its bill "to provide for the health, safety and comfort of employes" registers the most advanced waymark of progress in the industrial legislation of

the state. Great as is the actual gain in the protection of health, safety and life afforded by this act over all previous legislation in this state, and most others, more effective still will surely be the method exemplified of securing that unanimity of support which is absolutely

necessary to the enactment of better laws regulating industrial conditions. The initiation and progress of this difficult and delicate undertaking by the commission, as hitherto reported in THE SURVEY, awakened so much interest that the achievement of success warrants a review of the steps which led up to it, in order to give proper emphasis to the remarkable aftermath of the all too unusual story of peace and good will.

The preparation for this happy result began long before the forty-fifth general assembly, two years ago, authorized the governor to appoint this commission to "report by bill for the consideration and action of the forty-sixth general assembly." Foundation for the measure was laid by Chief Factory Inspector Edgar T. Davies, six years ago, when he quietly assumed it to be the function of his office to propose and draft bills for the improvement of industrial conditions, as well as to execute the laws he found upon the statute books of the state. The first effort he then made proved to be merely a test of the opposition which any proposal of more stringent laws protecting labor was sure to arouse, not only among the manufacturers but in the Legislature. The storm of protest which overwhelmed this first measure had scarcely abated four years later when he made the second attempt. Although the second measure was more carefully drawn, and combined many of the best provisions in the laws of other states, yet the antagonism which it evoked from the Illinois Manufacturers' Association was perhaps the more vigorous and vehement because the members were thoroughly aroused by a repetition of the effort which had first alarmed them. Then it was that resort was taken to the appointment of a commission consisting of three manufacturers, nominated to the governor by the Manufacturers' Association; three representatives of organized labor, suggested by the State Federation of Labor; a physician, a lawyer and a citizen at large. But even this conciliatory means of attempting to supply a great and widely recognized public necessity met with a single instance of bitter hostility, which seems almost unbelievably vindictive. Under date of March 21,

1908, an official letter addressed "to manufacturers," and entitled "Factory Inspection Legislation!" was sent throughout the state under the letterhead of the Manufacturers' Association. It contained the following choice bits of descriptive information and unreasoning appeal to class prejudice:

Agitation for so-called inspection legislation has been started. The forces back of the unjust, unfair and un-American factory inspection measure which it was attempted to rush through the last general assembly under the pretense that it was a bill to protect employes against accidents, have been holding meetings and organizing for the purpose of renewing their efforts at the next session of the Legislature. . . . The names of some of those who are taking the initiative in the agitation for the proposed legislation are mentioned in connection with the anarchistic movements which the police of the large cities are trying to suppress.

The way to meet the issue is by organization. The Illinois Manufacturers' Association has been the agency through which proposed legislation of this kind has been defeated in the past. There is strength in numbers. The fight will be harder at the next session of the general assembly than ever before.

Unless plant owners and employers present a solid front, laws of this character will be enacted in Illinois. If further legislation is necessary for the safeguarding of employes, why should not the men who own the properties have something to say? They have the interest of their employes at heart. The way to act together is through organization. Is there any organization better equipped than the Illinois Manufacturers' Association to accomplish this end?

Can you not see your way to send in an application now? Herewith is a blank.

This, be it remembered, was a year after the Legislature had authorized the appointment of the commission, although six months before the governor named its members. It should be mentioned also, in passing, that those referred to as "in connection with the anarchistic movement which the police of the large cities are trying to suppress," happen to have been some of the most experienced and public-spirited citizens of Chicago. They can now at least point with justifiable pride to the fact that they did take the initiative in this fair way, which has resulted in the universally approved legislation.

Notwithstanding this secret attempt of a paid official to make any co-operation for the enactment of just legislation im-

possible, the three able, determined and tactful commissioners representing the Manufacturers' Association secured the appointment by that body of a strong advisory committee. The three men representing the Illinois Federation of Labor likewise held their constituency close to the situation. Both sides agreed, with the hearty consent of the other three members of the commission, to submit the bill to their respective constituencies, section by section, as it was being formulated. After objections, concessions and approvals were thus obtained in advance from the forces which would surely have had to be reckoned with at a later and more critical time, the measure was presented to the Legislature by the governor accompanied by a special message urging its enactment. There was, therefore, at least good hope of passing it.

Serious obstacles however, were encountered. A fierce factional fight in the dominant party lined up a strenuous majority against the governor in the House of Representatives, that was not inclined to give him the credit of enacting such a good bill. A fake bill was introduced under the same title as that of the commission and advanced ahead of it, after the genuine bill had been passed by the Senate. Political advantage was taken of a section in the commission's bill making it "the duty of every employe working with any machinery to examine the same for defects each working day when so employed," and providing that any employe who suffers an injury because of his failure to give notice of any defect discovered shall have no right to recover damages against the employer. Some labor leaders and lawyers threatened to support the opposition if this section were not cut out. In this emergency the commission met at the capitol. A large number of manufacturers also came there at the call of their representatives on the commission. The labor members manfully took the risk of standing by their vote approving the measure as it stood. But the manufacturers agreed with all the other commissioners that rather than risk the defeat of so good a measure, and the failure to secure any needed legislation, it was better to eliminate the sec-

tion upon which the opposition to the bill had concentrated, and thus leave the Legislature without excuse to substitute anything for it or to vote it down. In view of this unprecedented conciliation of hitherto antagonistic forces in presenting a united front in support of the bill, and because of the astounding fact that no one appeared against the measure when public hearings were held, the opposition suddenly faded away, the substitute bill was withdrawn, and the Legislature, never so bitterly divided, actually enacted the amended commission bill without a dissenting vote in either house. After signing the act the governor sent a personal letter to each of the commissioners thanking him for the public service which he had rendered the state and its industrial interests.

At the invitation of one of its manufacturer members, the commission held a final social session around the lunch table. The host declared it to be his conviction that the just and conciliatory spirit in which this legislation was drafted and amended and the method employed would mark the beginning of better laws for the regulation of industrial conditions, in the interest of the whole commonwealth not only in Illinois but wherever its example would encourage others to a similar united effort. "Somehow," he added, "no matter how you have been fighting the other fellow, when you get your legs under the same table with him and talk things through, he seems more like yourself and you have more in common with him."

Then it was that the cap of the climax was unexpectedly put upon the closing act of the whole series of events. The president of the commission, Edwin R. Wright, who, notwithstanding the fact that he was president of the State Federation of Labor, had been nominated as president of the commission by one of the manufacturers, arose and on behalf of his labor colleagues presented each member of the commission with an exquisitely conceived and printed souvenir entitled *The New Labor Code*. It deserves to be reproduced here. But we can only describe it and quote it in part:

Broader avenues of commerce give access to nobler ideals of stewardship, and in this

friendly and broad-minded spirit the employer and employe have agreed on a basis of just and reasonable working conditions—The New Labor Code of Illinois. While we have asked the enactment of this agreement into law, the fundamental thought is that the employer will make its legal enforcement unnecessary, and the employe safer, healthier, and more contented—will contribute his not unimportant share to the common good.

The representatives of labor on the Illinois Industrial Commission desire to express to the Hon. Charles Piez, the Hon. E. E. Baker and the Hon. P. A. Peterson, representing the employers, our sincere appreciation of their impartial and painstaking service as members of the Illinois Industrial Commission and to assure them that we are deeply sensible of the services they have rendered the state. It is particularly gratifying to meet with men who, though holding differences of opinion and varied points of view, work in harmony for the common good, men who have not allowed differences of opinion to interfere in any degree with the impartial investigation of conditions surrounding labor, or the consideration of remedial legislation necessary for the protection of the health, safety and comfort of the employes of the commonwealth.

Labor appreciates the work you have done, and the worth of the services rendered to the citizens of the state, and as representatives of labor we believe that the spirit of fairness manifested by the members of the commission representing the employers emphasizes greatly the value of conference and a discussion of our problems, to the end that we may find the common ground upon which both sides may stand without the sacrifice of either principle or self-respect.

We are therefore, of the opinion that this expression of our esteem is but the simple acknowledgment of the impartial services you have rendered as members of the Illinois Industrial Commission.

Likewise, we are grateful to those unselfish representatives of the great third interest—the public—who for weeks and months gave of their time and effort that justice might be done the worker. To the Hon. Samuel A. Harper, the Hon. H. B. Favill, M. D., and the Hon. Graham Taylor special credit is due because theirs was an academic, rather than a direct interest, in striving for the highest possible standard of protection to our bread-winners.

Under less favorable circumstances the duty imposed on this section of the commission would have been to hold the balance of power to act as mediators in an effort toward harmony. Owing to the truly remarkable spirit of harmony and mutual confidence which developed with the first meetings of the commission the division lines were at once practically abolished.

In the presence of such men as represented the public much of this spirit of mutual confidence was born—because in the presence of such gentlemen the evil spirits of

sharp practice, undue influence, or mutual distrust would have fled abashed.

The text from which these excerpts are taken was flanked at the top and bottom of each page by the names of the commissioners and state officials associated with them. Under each name was printed a little tribute of three lines offered by their labor colleagues. The young manufacturer who was foremost in promoting the measure was recognized as "the master engineer to whom probably more than to any other member of the commission is due the finish and detail of the new labor code of our great state." The good physician was credited with promoting this sentiment: "Good health for our workers means true riches by the fireside—the immediate family drawing the interest!" The lawyer was hailed as "the master of craft, who cunningly wove together the thoughts of a dozen minds into a complete and harmonious fabric—a woof of humanity and a web of justice." The only reference to the labor members was the signature of their names—Edwin R. Wright, Peter W. Collins, William Rossell—to this tribute which their warm hearts and clear heads generously gave to their associates, who could only by word of mouth and friendly grasp of the hand assure them of what success owed to them.

"Dedicated to the Illinois Industrial Commission" by the attorney for the commission who turned poet, some verses entitled *Brotherhood* appeared on the last page of this prophetic little booklet. Out of the heart of it ring these notes of the new times that are to be:

Then shall we covet nothing less
Than our co-worker's good,
And only crave his gentleness
That makes for brotherhood;
And envy only that for which his kindness
has stood.

We then shall fear for nothing, save
The cowardice we've outgrown;
We then shall learn that men are brave
For honesty alone:
And crown all good with brotherhood at last
from zone to zone.

At eventide on the western slope,
As the lengthened shadows fall,
Our hands shall clasp in mutual hope,
Of brotherhood for all;
And blessed fatherhood in Him, the Master
of us all.

THE TREND OF THINGS

There has been a big improvement in the style and general make-up of reports and appeals of charitable societies during the past few years. Statistics have been made to live, photographs and drawings have rendered reading matter more real, and good typography has taken the place of amateurish printing. One of the best appearing and most readable reports of this new and forceful kind, is the one issued by the Home Gardening Association of Cleveland. The work in gardens, flower beds and grounds is described and illustrated and the aim and plan of the association are outlined. Stress is laid upon the real benefit to be found in the growing of flowers and vegetables in a small yard or even in a window box. "Seeds known to be of most easy and certain growth are selected. The distribution in penny packets reduces to a minimum the trouble and expense of obtaining them. What is necessary in planting and care, what may be expected in growth and fruition is explained by plain printed instruction and by illustrated lectures, and is actually shown in test, school, and training gardens."

The scope of the work may be judged from the seed and bulb distribution during 1908, when 572,554 packages of seeds were sold. Of these 264,777 were distributed through the Cleveland schools, and 307,777 through schools and organizations in other cities and villages.

The successful work of the gardens for defective children conducted in conjunction with the school gardens was described in *Charities and The Commons* for October 17, 1908. The illustration on this page showing the training garden is one of the many with which the report is illustrated.

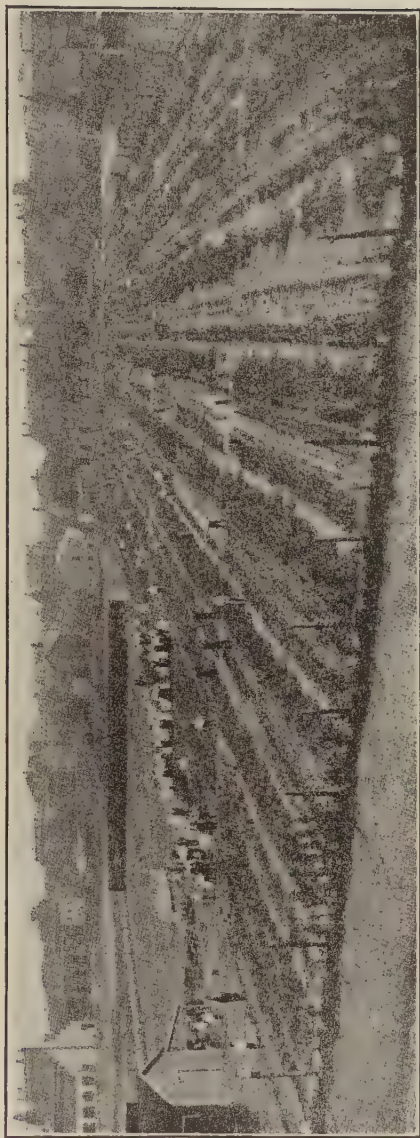
* * *

Laggards in Our Schools¹, by Leonard P. Ayres, which is the second of the reports embodying the results of the Backward Children Investigation carried on under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation,² contains much that will interest students of various phases of the child problem, as well as parents and the tax-paying public in general.

A startlingly large proportion of the pupils in our city school systems are found to be above normal age for their grade, or "retarded." This retardation results in overcrowding in the lower grades, "part-time" classes, and even in the exclusion of many applicants from the schools. The discouragement of repeated failures is found to be

¹ Laggards in Our Schools by Leonard P. Ayres. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Pp. 236. Price, \$1.50, postpaid.

² The subjects of physical defects and medical inspection were presented in Medical Inspection of Schools, by Luther Halsey Gulick, M. D., and Leonard P. Ayres. New York, 1908. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Pp. 275. Price \$1 postpaid. These books may be purchased through the offices of THE SURVEY.



FROM THE REPORT OF THE CLEVELAND HOME GARDENING ASSOCIATION.

largely responsible for the dropping out of these pupils, totally untrained as they are, who eventually must swell the number of the inefficient and perhaps of the dependent. Even before this point is reached, lack of interest in school work leads to truancy and all too frequently to the juvenile court.

The proportion of retarded pupils ranges from seven and five-tenths per cent in Medford, Mass., to sixty per cent in Erie, Pa., but a majority of the cities studied show more than thirty per cent of retardation.

Mr. Ayres estimates that at least \$27,000,000 is wasted annually on these "repeaters."

Late entrance, inflexible grading, irregular attendance and physical defects are a few of the causes assigned, and various practical remedies are suggested. The author presents a frank and unprejudiced discussion of conditions as he found them. His contention is that the elementary schools are falling far short of meeting the needs of the average child.

* * *

That Jewish philanthropy has a unique field and that the worker in it needs special preparation is convincingly set forth in a pamphlet, *Extent of Jewish Philanthropy in the United States*, by Boris D. Bogen of Cincinnati. The pamphlet is issued by the Section of Superintendents and Social Workers of the National Conference of Jewish Charities, and forms the first of a series of monographs.

Dr. Bogen holds that immigration is the primary reason for Jewish philanthropy. There is no pauperism among Jews, he holds; their dependency and delinquency result from special conditions beyond the control of the individual, which call for specific treatment by skilled workers. Extraordinary qualifications are required for understanding the conditions which surround the immigrant Jew and sometimes overwhelm him. Hence the need for training. But on the ground of the extent of Jewish philanthropy alone, training is required. Dr. Bogen estimates, from a number of reliable sources, that 1,191 Jewish organizations and institutions of a charitable character in the United States disburse annually five million dollars.

THE POOR RICH

FREDERIC ALMY

[Read at the luncheon of the Association of the New York School of Philanthropy, Buffalo, June 10.]

Some verses cynical are these,

Intended to amuse you.

Their only purpose is to please;

I hope they won't confuse you.

It may be but hilarity,

And yet 'tis sometimes said

That the poor find no more *Charity*

For the poor are now *Surveyed*.

There's little talk of giving now

For giving pauperizes,

But we study costs of living now

Which Chapin standardizes.

We give the poor employment,

And social education,

With harmless, mild enjoyment

In playground recreation.

And all the poor are so improved

That soon they'll cease their sobs,

And Poverty will be removed;—

And we shall lose our jobs.

Yet still Surveyed the poor will be

By Kellogg, it is said,

Surveyed because they are laid out,

Laid out because they're dead.

Now when the poor exist no more

What will be our vocation?

And how shall we still claim to be

The saviors of the nation?

We must not stop. The world might drop

If we should cease to steer it.

We'll help the rich,—a practice which

Has points which much endear it.

As friendly visitors we'll ride

Upon their touring cars;

And all of the A. I. C. P.'s

Will be A. I. C. R's.

But more than this. We know relief

Starts with investigation,

And here we'll give the rich our chief

And constant ministration.

Their books we will investigate,

Their factories, their insurance,

And for their good we'll legislate

Until they learn endurance.

We'll show the rich the virtues high

Of true co-operation,

And socialistic schemes we'll try

Of labor federation.

Their swollen fortunes we'll reduce

By many a tax progressive;

An Asquith budget we'll produce

That will be most impressive.

We'll do it all for love, because

We know they are our brothers.

Precisely so, before, it was,

We did it for the others.

For rich and poor must both endure

A service asked by neither,

The rich will not be grateful, but

The poor were not so either.

And soon, through this new charity

Men won't know which is which,

For there'll be no disparity

Between the poor and rich.

When rich are gone, and poor are gone,

What shall We do for bread?

With neither of these to work upon

What shall we find instead?

It may be the reformer then

Will be upon the shelf.

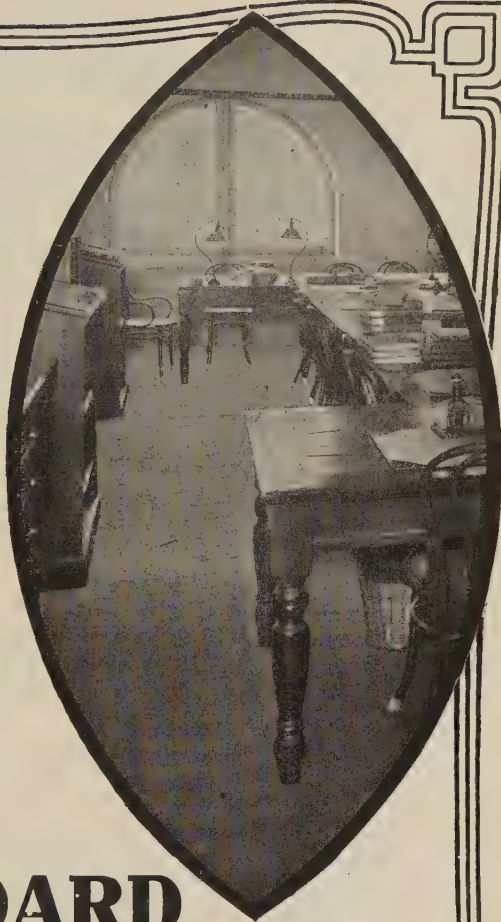
Or, maybe, though 'tis hard to think,

He will reform himself.

A Correction.—Through error the photographs on pp. 487, 488 and 489 are credited to Hine. The credit belongs to White, New York. The mistake was not discovered until the form was partly off the press.

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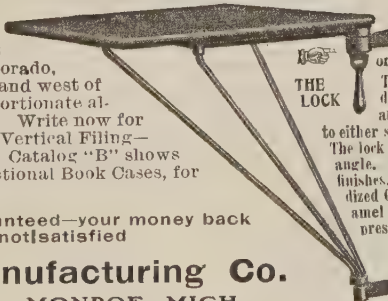
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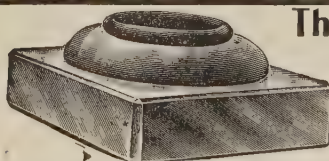
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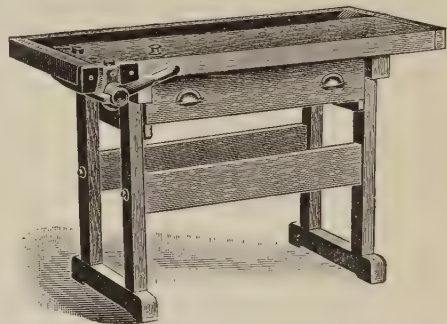
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TUBERCULOSIS NOTES

After a winter's work in Alabama, Florida and Georgia, the southern exhibit of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis closed its campaign for the summer months in Knoxville, Pennsylvania, on July 8.

Miss Mary Harriman, eldest daughter of E. H. Harriman, has given an abandoned ferryboat for use as a day tuberculosis camp to the Brooklyn Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The Indiana State Board of Health reports that in one year that state lost 790 mothers between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, and 425 fathers through consumption. These fathers and mothers left behind them 2,515 children under twelve years of age.

Lorne McGibbon, a leading business man of Montreal, has decided to give \$125,000 for the erection and equipment of a sanatorium for tuberculosis treatment, to be erected at St. Agathe, in the Laurentian Mountains. Mr. McGibbon was once a sufferer from the disease, and spent much time in the Adirondacks. He was cured and is now interested in giving something for those less fortunately placed than himself.

Mayor Hibbard of Boston has assured the school authorities of that city that he will do all in his power to secure a \$300,000 appropriation for a special school for tuberculous children.

The State Board of Health of North Carolina is co-operating with the State Tuberculosis Association by doing all of the society's printing free, and by helping in other ways maintain the organization. This cordial co-operation of state and private bodies in the anti-tuberculosis campaign is meeting with good results.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

STUDY OF NEW YORK'S CHILD LIFE PROPOSED

A movement for the careful and correlated study of all the forces affecting children in a city community has been slowly gathering impetus during the last six months. Following the studies made by the National Child Labor Committee, the Committee on Recreation and Amusement, New York, and other groups which have studied single phases of child life, this movement proposes to view the whole question of child-forming influences in New York city. It is proposed to study and determine what are the principal forces affecting children and their effects; what forces of evil are at present inadequately counteracted and what forces for good are in need of further support and development; and what the next steps should be in the community's dealing with children.

The plan involves utilizing in a comprehensive whole the data already in the hands of the Department of Education, the Parks and Playgrounds Association, the Child Labor Committee, the Tenement House Department, the Health Department and the Federation of Churches; and also securing and bringing together much additional information about the influences of the homes, the streets, the schools, the churches and Sunday schools, the settlements, public and private charities, industry, printed matter, recreation and amusement, legislation and administration.

It is planned to gather all this data through the assistance of the organizations which have already secured many facts and conclusions concerning child life and the need for recreation, industrial training and child labor legislation. In addition, a regular staff of competent investigators under the direction of expert committees will be employed to

bring out new and significant facts about the effect of all these forces.

The general committee behind the project, which is embryonic, consists of such men as Presidents Butler and Finley, and Chancellor MacCracken, who have pledged the co-operation of their universities; Messrs. Winthrop, Coudert, and Burlingham, representing the public schools and V. Everit Macy, James Speyer, Gilbert Colgate, R. Fulton Cutting, Cleveland H. Dodge, William Fellows Morgan, William Church Osborn, William Jay Schieffelin, Prof. E. R. A. Seligman and others representing some of the public-spirited citizenship of New York.

An executive committee has been formed with these members:

B. Ogden Chisholm, Miss Martha Draper, Theodore Dreiser, Edward R. Finch, Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, Dr. Walter L. Hervey, John Sherman Hoyt, William Gilman Low, Jr., John Martin, Robert Van Iderstine, Evert Jansen Wendell, Judge Robert J. Wilkin, Miss Evangeline Whitney.

It is further purposed to exhibit the significant facts and conclusions established by this investigation during the winter of 1909-1910. It is believed that such an exhibit will be one of the most important features of the investigation, serving to bring home vividly and graphically to the community the facts regarding city life and its effects on children.

NEW SECRETARY FOR PORTLAND CHARITIES

Francis H. Hiller has accepted a call to become secretary of the Associated Charities of Portland, Maine, to succeed Howard S. Braucher. He will assume his new duties August 15. Mr. Hiller had special work in philanthropy at Cornell University under Prof. Frank A. Fetter. After graduating in the class of 1903 he studied for a time in the New

York School of Philanthropy and also worked with the Tuberculosis Committee of The New York Charity Organization Society. For the past two years Mr. Hiller has been principal of the high school at Morris, N. Y.

LABOR UNIONS TO BUILD HOSPITAL

Public officials have just passed upon a matter of far-reaching importance to the many thousands suffering from tuberculosis in New York state. The application of the Brooklyn Central Labor Union for permission to erect a sanatorium on Long Island, near Medford and about five miles from Patchogue, has been granted by the state commissioner of health, Dr. Eugene H. Porter, and Dr. C. A. Baker, health officer of the town of Brookhaven, where the hospital site is. Several years ago a law was passed making it necessary to obtain the consent of the county board of supervisors and of the town board before tuberculosis sanatorium, hospital or camp could be established. The effect of this law was to render their establishment practically impossible. Experience has demonstrated that pressure is easily brought to bear upon these local officials by those who base their opposition to tuberculosis hospitals upon the now generally discredited belief that they are a menace to the public health and depreciate the value of property in their vicinity.

But the law has been changed. Now the state commissioner of health and the health officer of the locality have power to grant or withhold consent for the erection of the institution. The attitude assumed by these officials in considering the application of the Brooklyn Central Labor Union, the first to be made under the new law, is encouraging to those engaged in tuberculosis work and suggests what may be expected in the future.

As this was the first application under the new statute, the questions considered by the commissioner of health and the local health officer before granting it are particularly interesting, for their answers are likely to constitute precedents of far-reaching importance. The decision concludes:

The character of the institution to be established; the suitability of the proposed site; the responsibility of the persons or associations desiring to establish the sanatorium, and how it is to be managed and conducted. . . . The site is located at a considerable distance from any village and there are only a very few houses anywhere near the proposed site. Properly conducted sanatoria are not in any sense a menace to public health. An institution of such a character located on the proposed site will not be dangerous to any of the residents. As to the financial responsibility of the petitioners, it appears that there are a large number of labor unions interested in the project, and that they will also seek the aid of persons outside of these organizations. . . . The petitioners have testified that ample medical supervision will be provided for, and the character of the men associated with the movement looking toward the construction of the institution leads to the belief that every effort will be made to see that it is properly managed.

But little evidence was offered in opposition, and that chiefly upon the ground that it would be a menace to the neighborhood or that it would depreciate the value of the surrounding property. As to the latter point, the experience of other places where sanatoria for the treatment of tuberculosis have been established would not justify such a belief; for in a number of places in the state of New York where such sanatoria have been built there has been a rapid increase in the value of surrounding property. . . . Application for permission to construct this institution was made under the provision of the late law to the town board, and permission was refused. For that reason we have considered very carefully every phase of the question and we have reached the conclusion that no good reason exists for denying permission to construct this institution or to disapprove of the location thereof.

The site of the new Brooklyn hospital is a tract of sixty-five acres owned by the Brooklyn Central Labor Union, and easily accessible to Brooklyn. It is intended to erect a two story building at a cost of \$50,000, which will contain one hundred single rooms for patients, arranged along balconies extended around the central administration building. The structure will be of wood with concrete exterior.

There is a great need among working people for an institution where patients may go at a low cost without feeling that they are recipients of charity. In Brooklyn alone there are over 5,000 cases of consumption and hospital provision for

less than 400. The hospital will be sustained by the co-operation of more than 200 labor organizations, in endowing beds, paying sick benefits and establishing a maintenance fund. It will be conducted on the broadest lines, open to anyone having tuberculosis, whether a member of a labor union, or not.

CINCINNATI'S CONTINUATION SCHOOL

In August there will be opened in Cincinnati a continuation school for the benefit of apprentices who are employed in the city shops. The Board of Education has appointed as teacher, a well educated man who has had ten years' experience in the assembly room of a local machine shop. The board will pay this instructor's salary, and the proprietors of the shops have agreed to pay the wages of their apprentices for the time they spend in the school. For the coming year the boys will be divided into six groups, each group attending the school one session weekly. The apprentices will receive instruction in shop mathematics, beginning with the simplest elements, in free-hand sketching of machinery, in the nature of the subject they work with, in inventions, and in civics. The work will be made intensely practical, with a half hour of actual shop work daily. The instruction will be related to the difficulties commonly encountered in the shops. In the study of certain materials, spelling and composition will be taught in connection with the work. Apprentices fourteen years of age and older, will be selected as pupils and classified into groups according to their ability in technical subjects. The school is modeled on the German system.

The establishment of this school in an industrial community like Cincinnati, is undoubtedly a step toward the solution of the problem concerning the education and efficiency of young breadwinners, but it affects only one phase of this great question. The apprentices in machine shops constitute but a very small proportion of the total number of children employed in gainful occupations, and to every student of industrial conditions it is painfully apparent that the opportuni-

ties for advancement offered to most of these children, are meager indeed.

Of the 195 children fourteen and fifteen years old, who secured employment certificates from the superintendent of schools in Cincinnati during the first twenty-two days of June, fifty-five went to work in shoe factories; forty in retail stores; fifteen in clothing factories; twelve in box factories; eight in machine shops; six in the messenger service, and the others scattered themselves among laundries, bakeries and factories of various kinds. Of these children, 107 were boys, and eighty-eight girls; 137 were fourteen, and fifty-eight fifteen years of age. They withdrew from school before the end of the scholastic year, and the great majority will never return to their studies. The point of special interest in these figures with regard to the establishment of the continuation school, is that such an extremely small number of boys enter the machine shops, and thereby become eligible for enrollment in the continuation school, as compared with the number who enter stores, factories and other establishments in which as a rule, they are evolved into unskilled workers or dull witted machines.

The minute subdivision of labor in a modern factory or mill, under the force of which a boy or girl is assigned to a machine which performs some very small part of the whole process entering into the making of the final product, interferes with the mechanical training of the child and robs him of even an intelligent insight into the methods of manufacture. In a machine shop an apprentice receives a thorough course of training in all the processes involved, and therefore enjoys an immeasurable advantage over the mill or factory boy who, hour after hour, and day after day, makes one series of deadening movements while performing his simple task.

The continuation school is heartily to be welcomed, if only as an experiment, but it is not enough—it merely adds to the efficiency of the favored few, and leaves the bigger need untouched. Children who go to work at the age of fourteen or fifteen years, have but little education; the majority of the 195 children referred to, did not complete the sixth

grade of the common schools; only thirty-one of them progressed as far as the eighth grade, and twenty-one were enrolled in the second, third and fourth grades. These figures hold not only for the twelve or fifteen hundred children who obtain employment certificates in Cincinnati during the course of the year, but also for those who go to work in most American cities. The majority of working children have only a smattering of the "elements", and no opportunity to increase their stock of knowledge.

NEW CHILDREN'S ACT IN ALBERTA

The province of Alberta, Canada, has a new "children's act" passed at the instance of Attorney-General Cross after consultations with Judge Ben B. Lindsey, Judge George S. Addams of Cleveland and J. J. Kelso of Ontario.

It was drawn with particular heed for Alberta's special problem of assimilating the heterogeneous peoples who are assembling in that province. The British, the Canadians, and the Americans are easily managed but the multitudes from continental Europe must be patiently dealt with. Their peasant longing to "get rich quick," by compelling their children to contribute steadily to the family purse, has to be replaced by a desire to see their children well educated, with a wholesome respect for the laws and institutions of the dominion.

The act makes provision for forcing responsibility on cruel or negligent parents who may be fined or jailed for ill-treating a child. Parents may be supervised by an official charged with the duty of seeing that children be properly dealt with in the family home. If the parents refuse compliance with the requisitions of the official, then they may be compelled to pay for proper care of the child by other persons.

In cities of over ten thousand population there shall be provided a refuge or shelter for the temporary detention of children who are either on trial as delinquents, or neglected and in need of temporary protection while awaiting their

transfer to foster homes. In towns of less than ten thousand population, arrangements may be made with some private individual for the temporary care of the children.

Children's aid societies may be organized, having for their object the supervision and management of children in temporary homes, the securing of foster homes, of parks, and of children's playgrounds. These societies may appoint a juvenile court committee to aid and advise in the handling of juvenile delinquents. They may act as volunteer probation officers, and friends of the children or of their parents. Children's courts may be established by appointing two suitable men to act as a commission to try juvenile offenders and children may be transferred by the court to the care of a children's aid society, or may be allowed out on probation.

A reporting system is provided for, whereby children of a probation officer are put under the care of a probation officer, if necessary.

No child may be confined in a common lock-up, cell or guard-room, used for persons charged with crime.

Children held for trial must not be confined in the same room with adult prisoners and those charged with crime must be tried immediately, and in some place outside of the regular court room, or not sooner than two hours after the regular court session.

Anyone who interferes in any way with a child which has been made a ward of the superintendent of dependent and neglected children, or of any children's aid society, or any child who has been put under the care of a probation officer, is liable to a heavy fine and imprisonment.

Supervision of this work is centralized at the offices of the government. Individual cases are cared for as may be needed. Children's aid societies are organized wherever possible, in such a way as to give the work in each place a local interest. Everything possible is done to put the responsibility for the success of the work where it should be, upon those members of the community who stand for all that is best in citizenship.

MILK AND BABY HYGIENE IN BOSTON

The executive committee of Boston's Milk and Baby Hygiene Committee has decided that hereafter the modified milk sold at cost to poor mothers unable to nurse their babies shall be distributed in feeding bottles in quantities from one to eight ounces, at a price varying from one-half cent to one-third cent an ounce, and also in pint bottles at nine cents a quart. This will make it possible for poor mothers to get the milk either in the feeding bottle, which can be given directly to the child without being divided or mixed, or in quantities, at a cheaper rate.

The price of nine cents a quart for milk, carefully modified to meet the baby's needs according to his condition and age, is only one-fifth of the amount charged by a well-known firm distributing modified milk on a commercial basis. Dr. John M. Connolly, for seven years instructor in chemistry at Harvard University and a well known specialist on children's diseases connected with the Boston Dispensary and the Mt. Sinai Hospital, has been appointed medical director of the committee. Dr. Connolly is proceeding at once to establish the consultations between mothers obtaining milk for their babies at the committee's ten stations, and local physicians who are giving them individual advice and direction.

FOR THE BABIES OF PHILADELPHIA

Philadelphia's Department of Health has organized an alliance for the care of babies. Voluntary service will be rendered by 150 physicians and co-operating committees have been organized in every ward. Mrs. Frederick K. Schoff is at the head of a central committee. Lectures are being given in the school buildings on Wednesday afternoons under the auspices of the Philadelphia Alliance for the Care of Babies. The campaign is under the direction of the Department of Public Health, the Board of Education, the Congress of Mothers, the Home and School League, and allied associations.

Each mother has received a circular letter from the Department of Health informing her of the time and place of the lectures. In this letter the mother is asked these questions:

What milk do you use? We can tell you just what to feed your baby.

Do you feed your baby whenever it cries? Why? We will tell you how often to feed your baby.

Do you give your baby fresh air? Why not? We can tell you why your baby needs fresh air.

Do you give your baby water to drink? Why not? We will tell you about the baby's bath.

Do you give your baby a pacifier? Why?

A SOCIOLOGICAL RETREAT AT SAGAMORE

Sagamore Beach is the name of a curving reach of sand and water overlooked by low, half-green hills, near where the new ship canal will cut through and make Cape Cod an island. There are two inns or lodges, an assembly hall and a cluster of cottages. For three years now Sagamore Beach has been the setting of a "sociological conference" in early summer. The members come for half a week as guests of George W. Coleman of Boston, publisher of *The Christian Endeavor World*. They include churchmen of all churches, socialists, business men and professional folk; people who would reform diet, spelling, the stage, the world; people very cranky, very sane; very merry, very serious; people who are serving on prison boards, as editors of magazines of national circulation, as secretaries of trade unions, as ministers, as settlement workers, as playwrights. The conferences are entirely informal and the hundred or more who take part in them are spirited without being belligerent, and search for common understanding by putting divergent views the firmest way they can. If you were to look for a special note amid such variety, to set the gathering off against others of one sort or another which are held throughout the year, it would be that of the approach of the man of religious feeling to the social situation of the day.

This was characteristic of this year's

conference. The stated addresses included one by William T. Ellis, a Philadelphian whose journalism has carried him throughout the world and who brought out that the social unrest in America finds its counterpart not only in Europe, but in India, China and Japan; a review by Paul U. Kellogg of recent progress in organization in the field of social reform; and an analysis of the problems of democracy which underlie the race question, by Ray Stannard Baker, whose book, *Following the Color Line*, has thrown new light on the real status of the Negro in America. There was an interpretation by Robert A. Woods of South End House, Boston, of the industrial education movement as a fundamental factor in social reconstruction; and a stirring portrayal by Mrs. Raymond Robbins, president of the Women's Trade Union League, of the moral and social bearings of women's work—of the “hunger and home and babies” which lie back of speeding, long hours and low wages, the fatigue and the rebellion of working girls. Agnes Nestor of the Glovemakers' Union was there to tell of the recent legislative campaign of working women in Illinois; and Rose Pastor Stokes, who has worked in the cigar trades, was one of those who took part in the discussion.

But it was in the closing address by Rabbi Wise on the Social Message of the Hebrew Prophets, and even more markedly in the paper by Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch of the Rochester Theological Seminary—author of *Christianity and the Social Crisis*—that the conference found its characteristic expression. Professor Rauschenbusch traced the development of social purpose in the struggles for the economic enfranchisement of working people. His address was hailed as one of the clearest, brief expositions which have yet been made of their position by the Christian socialists. His history may have been bad or good, as one looked at it; his economics right or wrong, but there was a spiritual reach to his utterance that gave each listener, after his kind, a sense of the indomitable spirit with which humanity has held to its loftier visions; and, after all, of the en-

during quality of those visions. If they seem nearer and truer, the visions, out under the sky and beside the water than they are where machinery crunches, where office bells buz, and babies cry in the tenements, then all the more reason for such coming together and interchange as at these Sagamore conferences.

THE STUDY OF FATIGUE

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK

Among the many problems of industrial hygiene, the most important has hitherto been most neglected—the problem of industrial overstrain. Medical interest in occupational diseases is over a century old, and the literature on the subject is enormous, a partial bibliography filling almost twenty pages in Mr. Hoffman's *Mortality From Consumption in Dusty Trades*.¹ But these works scarcely mention the commonest and most subtle danger of occupation, over-fatigue. In the United States it has not yet been faced nor even fairly stated, yet no one element of industry is more fraught with peril for the workers. Indeed, over-fatigue or exhaustion—*surmenage* as the French call it—affects every department of life, physical and economic, mental, moral. It predisposes to disease; it destroys intelligence and all the habitual restraints; it cuts down output and impairs its quality; it invites industrial accidents. It affects not only workers in admittedly dangerous occupations but all workers—every man, woman and child employed for excessive working hours.

What, then, are excessive working hours? What is the nature of exhaustion? How can it be recognized in time? How best combated? All these and many other allied questions, call for immediate study and clarification.

It happens that in 1910—probably a year from next fall—there will meet for the first time in the United States the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, which for years has invited scientific study of precisely this province of industrial hygiene—fatigue and its

¹ Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor, November, 1908.

relation to length of working hours. In the course of an investigation carried on during the past months by the writer (following the compilation of the brief in the Oregon case under direction of Mr. Brandeis last winter, no more valuable contributions to the physiological and psychological study of overstrain have been found than the articles read before the congress at Brussels in 1903 and at Berlin in 1907.¹ The congress had previously heard able papers on these problems at its meeting in Budapest, 1894, and in Paris, 1900. At the meeting in Brussels it passed a resolution urging governments to study over-fatigue as one of the most fertile sources of ill health. This recommendation was quoted and repeated in hearings before the British Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Degeneration, 1904. The writer has not as yet learned of any specific government action taken in response to these recommendations, although M. Fontaine, chief of the French *Office du Travail*, is reported to have opened a laboratory for such special study.

It is this new correlation of strictly scientific investigation of fatigue and its application to industrial conditions by the International Congress of Hygiene, which has hitherto been lacking in this country. Could not the first American meeting of the international congress in 1910 stimulate similar investigation and study here? Interest in increasing efficiency has already led important industrial establishments to provide medical supervision of the hygiene of their employes, thus affording one method of observation.

In this connection, interest attaches to another recently formed European body, and its broad conception of industrial hygiene. The "*Commission Internationale Permanente pour l'Etude des Maladies Professionnelles*," was organized after the First International Congress on Industrial Diseases, in Milan, 1906, with headquarters in Milan. The constitu-

tion of the commission sets forth its object as follows: "To collect and study new facts in physiology, pathology or in the social sciences, which may be of value to industrial hygiene; to draw the attention of the authorities to the results of studies which may be valuable for industrial hygiene, and to recommend to learned societies as subjects of discussion, questions of physiology, of clinical interest and of the hygiene of labor; to make public the efforts of governments, universities, hospitals and private persons, directed towards the teaching and development of industrial hygiene."

The list of members of the *Commission Internationale Permanente* fails to show a single representative of the United States among men from European countries such as, Dr. Thomas Legge, his majesty's medical inspector of factories, and Dr. Thomas Oliver, England; Prof. L. Devoto, director of the Clinic for Industrial Diseases at Milan, and Professor Pieraccini, Italy; Dr. D. Gilbert, chief medical inspector, Belgium; Dr. E. Roth, Germany; Dr. Jean Paul Langlois, France; and representatives from Holland, Sweden, Russia, Austro-Hungary, Switzerland, Greece, Canada and the Argentine Republic.

The *Commission Internationale Permanente* publishes a quarterly bulletin containing exhaustive bibliographies of works on the "hygiene, physiology, pathology and clinical aspects of labor" in current medical and social literature. While many of these works deal with specific diseases of occupation, there is also new emphasis on questions of overstrain and exhaustion, studied both in the laboratory and in industry.

For the first American meeting of the International Congress of Hygiene, a year and a half hence, some specific questions for discussion might be: A study of fatigue of attention, shown by the incidence of accidents after long working hours, comparable to the work of Professor Imbert in France and Professor Pieraccini in Italy; a study of the specific effect on health and efficiency from reducing hours of work and overtime, comparable to the work of Ernst

¹"Dans quelle mesure peut on par des methodes physiologiques étudier la fatigue, ses modalités et ses degrés dans les diverses professions," by Dr. Z. Treves, of Turin, etc.

Ermüdung durch Berufsarbeit, by Dr. E. Roth, of Berlin, Dr. Z. Treves, etc.

Abbé and others abroad; a study of the relative productivity of late hours of work.

Another line of investigation of great interest would be information on the relation between overstrain and the increase in nervous disorders among working people. Abroad the records of the sickness insurance societies are bringing this problem into prominence especially in Germany and Austria. While the societies' statistics do not yet appear to be sufficiently standardized to offer positive proof that industrial overstrain results in nervous disorders, the rapid increase of such diseases among insured members has provoked discussion of the facts and of the need of counteracting them by reducing hours of labor.

The National Consumers' League recommends study and publication of results in what the Italians aptly term the pathology of labor, *patologia del lavoro*, for a twofold object: for use in obtaining legislation reducing hours of labor in the various states, and in subsequently defending such legislation in the courts. Judging from the requests for the brief in the Oregon case received last winter from states where legislation for women has been undertaken (New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and others), there is urgent need of more information on the physiological and social facts upon which protective laws are based.

Such laws offer the most direct and only enforceable means of combating industrial overstrain. Education in better nutrition, better housing, etc., is doubtless indispensable, but a minimum leisure can be directly provided by the state.

CIVICS AND HEALTH¹

Reviewed by GEORGE M. KOBER, M. D.
Washington, D. C.

The perusal of this excellent and timely publication on Civics and Health has been attended with pleasure and profit; The book will be welcomed by all who

¹ Civics and Health, by William H. Allen. Ginn and Company, New York, 1909. Pp. 411. Price, \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.

are working and wishing for a new order of things.

Part I deals with health rights, and contains some excellent chapters entitled, Health a Civic Obligation, Health Motives, The Physical Welfare of School Children as an Index to Community Health. The pages based upon interviews with teachers and principals, regarding the present apathy to formal instruction in hygiene should be carefully read by all interested in higher health standards.

In the chapter on health motives the author points out that the commercial interests, a desire to prevent business losses from pestilential diseases stimulated into existence maritime quarantine and boards of health, and that even now "for commercial reasons many of our states vote more money for the protection of cattle than for the protection of human life, and the United States votes millions for the study of hog cholera, chickenpox, and animal tuberculosis, while neglecting communicable diseases of men." We also most heartily indorse the following sentence in chapter III, "What health rights a community pretends to enforce will, as a rule, be found in its health code. What health rights are actually enforced can be learned only by studying both the people who are to be protected and the conditions in which these people live." . . . The slip 'twixt lawmaking and law enforcement is everywhere found. In 1864 New York state prohibited the sale of adulterated milk. Law after law has been made since that time, giving health officials power to revoke licenses of milk dealers and to send men to jail who violate milk laws. We know that no law will ever stop the present frightful waste of infant lives, counted in thousands annually unless dairies are frequently inspected and forced to be clean . . ."

Chapter IV on the physical welfare of school children, medical inspection of pupils, the character of the physical defects noted and how to remedy them, is replete with useful information for the prevention of permanent disabilities. The chapter on mouth breathing, catching diseases, colds, diseased glands, eye-strain, ear trouble, malnutrition, deformities,

contains clear and accurate information as to the nature and serious consequences involved by the neglect of these affections.

These chapters are of very great economic importance when we consider that physically defective persons contribute such a large contingent to our charitable institutions and that many of these partial and complete disabilities could be prevented by proper care and treatment in childhood. It is now well known that many of the joint deformities in children are amenable to treatment, and that a ruptured child or person may be radically cured. Poverty is no excuse for the "do nothing system," as the medical charities offer adequate facilities for persons unable to pay for treatment. Nor is there an excuse for not attempting to cure discharging ears, defective hearing or vision, since every observer is familiar with the sad consequences of such defects in the ultimate struggle for existence. Parents may not know that a child afflicted with a squint, harelip or cleft palate may be transformed into a vicious character because it is the object of constant ridicule within and without school, and that all this could be avoided by a timely operation. Parents are probably not aware that many of the nervous affections and even mental defects in boys are due to some slight malformation of the genital organs, for which the Hebrews instituted circumcision. Nor is it generally known that anaemic and ill-nourished children and those suffering from enlarged tonsils, cervical glands or post nasal growths, and the majority of "mouth breathers" are peculiarly susceptible to disease in general and to tuberculosis in particular. Lastly there is no good reason why special attention should not be given to the physical development of undersized children or those affected with slight muscular deformities which, if left uncorrected, will be a source of regret and even reproach to the teacher and parent. The remedy lies chiefly in education and "in getting things done," and it is here that physicians, teachers, instructive visiting nurses, social settlement workers, agents and friendly visitors of the associated charities can render a distinct service to the

child and the state. Dr. Allen very justly remarks: "Years ago when I taught school in a Minnesota village, I had never heard of adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils, myopia, hypermetropia or the relation of these defects and of neglected teeth to malnutrition, truancy, sickness and dullness. I now see how I could have saved myself several failures, the taxpayers a great deal of money, the parents a great deal of disappointment, and many children a life of inefficiency, had I known what it is easy for all teachers and parents to learn to-day."

The chapter on abnormally bright children, and chapter XI on nervousness of teacher and pupil deserve special mention, and few readers will be disposed to differ with the author's views of the health value of "unbossed" play and physical training set forth in chapter XII. We believe however that "healthy mindedness" and physical morality will be promoted by proper supervision of playgrounds. It has been our experience that improper language and conduct among the older children diminished with the degree of supervision, and that where no such supervision was had, complaints on those scores were quite frequent. In the absence of outdoor play facilities in schools and during inclement weather, we believe in opening the doors and windows of the classroom and engaging in the setting up exercises between each study hour. Nothing can take the place of such exercises for the restoration of the normal intracranial circulation, so necessary for the prevention of mental fatigue.

The chapter on vitality tests and vital statistics are of unusual interest and importance, and the five economic reasons for the establishment of a national department of health should appeal very strongly to those intrusted with the administration of national affairs, especially when we are told "that if illness in the United States could be reduced one-third nearly \$500,000,000 could be saved annually. . . . In addition to the economic gain, the establishment of a national department of health would gradually but surely diminish much of the misery and suffering that cannot be measured by statistics."

Professor Finkelnburg of Bonn estimates that the average length of human life in the sixteenth century was only between eighteen and twenty years, while today it is over forty years, indeed the span of life since 1880 has been lengthened about six years. No two factors have contributed so much to the general result as the improvement of the air we breathe and the water we drink.

Professor Fisher, in a report for the Conservation Commission based on data contributed from acknowledged American authorities, estimates that "human life in America could, by the adoption of hygienic reforms already known and entirely practicable, be lengthened by over one-third—that is, over fifteen years." It is estimated that at least eight years could be added to human life merely by securing "reasonably pure air, water and milk." In view of these conservative estimates, Dr. Allen's chapters on the fight for clean milk, the last days of tuberculosis, and preventive medicine will be read with special interest and profit. We cannot agree with the author that the apathy on the part of the medical profession to preventive medicine is as general as his language implies. Those who are familiar with the progress and tendency of hygiene and sanitary science know that the leaders in this great movement have been medical men. Acting upon the principles that the education and betterment of the people in sanitation are not less humane than the healing of the sick, the medical profession has filled the measures of philanthropy by advocating laws to regulate the health and physical well-being of communities and thereby lessen its own income. It may be truly said that every law inscribed in the statute books in the interest of public health, and every hospital or other medical charity owes its foundation and success to the activities of the medical profession. In the search for the causes and prevention of diseases the interests of the wage earners have received special consideration. German authors in 1897 issued a volume of over 1,200 pages on Industrial Hygiene and English authors, under the editorship of Dr. Thomas Oliver, devoted eighty-nine pages to dangerous trades and the meth-

ods by which these dangers may be prevented or mitigated. While it is true that not every physician is also a sanitarian, yet it must be conceded that all the knowledge concerning the causes and prevention of communicable diseases have come to us principally from the medical profession, and if the methods of prevention recommended by sanitarians have not been adopted the fault lies with the public. It required years of unremitting efforts to secure for the national capital the benefits of water filtration, extension of the sewerage system, sanitary control of dairies and of contagious diseases, the condemnation of houses unfit for human habitation, etc., and in only one movement, *viz*, the effort to secure compulsory notification of tuberculosis, did a layman take the lead.

The chapters devoted to the discussion of the official machinery for enforcing health rights including the departments of school hygiene, the school and health reports, and the part the press plays, or should play, in this great world movement are full of sensible suggestions which will doubtless bear fruit; credit being given to papers, and magazines giving special emphasis in their pages to topics relating to public health, private and public morality, education and sanitation. It is rather surprising to be told that as a result of the author's collection of clippings from a three cent paper, and a penny paper having three times the circulation, the high priced paper had no editorial comment within the field of health, whereas the penny paper had three columns in which were discussed among other things: The Economics of Bad Teeth; Need for Individual Efficiency, "Good Fellows" Lower Standards of Living by Neglecting Their Families. The author points out that *Charities and The Commons*, according to the index of last year, published no less than 232 articles dealing with subjects directly connected with public hygiene. When the general press realizes that the question of health is intimately connected with the physical, moral and social welfare of the human race, that health is the chief asset of all persons whose only income is the product of their daily labor, more attention will be paid to the promotion

of industrial efficiency and earning power, appropriate safeguards and adequate protection of the men, women and children engaged in gainful occupations. Every effort in the prevention of disease may be regarded as a fundamental step in the prevention of poverty and distress, and the chief value of this book lies in the fact that it emphasizes the importance of preventive measures in a most practical and satisfactory manner.

The chapters on do-nothing ailments, heredity bugaboos and heredity truths, ineffective and effective ways of combating alcoholism, fighting tobacco evils, the patent medicine evil, instructions in sex health, are timely contributions to our knowledge of the subject and fill a long felt want in the minds of all interested in social reforms.

I commend the volume in the most unreserved manner. There is no book today in the English language which contains more useful, valuable and reliable information on the subjects of which it treats. Every chapter and page deserve unstinted praise, and the work cannot fail to exert a tremendous influence in the promotion of health and happiness.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SOCIETY¹

Reviewed by CARL KELSEY

University of Pennsylvania

The practical worker will find in this volume very little of immediate value. Dr. Davis (himself a social worker by the way) is seeking to present a certain aspect of social theory. This leads him into a careful analysis of the writings of some well known and some little known men. The monograph centers in the chapters on Tarde (over one-third of the volume), which were printed as his Ph.D. thesis two years ago. The work is in the range of theory, therefore, rather than actual life.

The essence of society is in the co-operation of individuals. How millions of separate beings develop a common

mind is for sociology to show. If we investigate the physical or biological conditions of this process, our sociology is biological or ethnological. If we study the institutions society develops, it is historical; if we regard the "feelings, thoughts, brain states, and impulses" which accompany action, it is psychological.

Section I, Social Mind (68 pp.) is an attempt to trace the history of the conception and to define the phrase. Four chapters are devoted to this: Historical Foundations; Social Unity (Interpretations); Social Units (Genesis); Social Mind (Definition). Section II is called Social Function (109 pp.). In the six chapters included is given the author's exposition and criticism of Tarde, to which attention has already been called. On the whole, I consider this much the best part of the book. It gives one an excellent idea of the work of a most able and suggestive student of social problems.

Section III, Applications (48 pp.), consists of four chapters—Psychological Principles, Psychology in the Interpretation of History, Public Opinion and Socialization and Personality and Its Social Significance. In studying present problems we must discover the tendency. Knowing the various psychological processes, the student must find which factors are involved in the particular problem under investigation. Only in this way can the narrowness of the specialist be avoided.

In studying history we must find the correlations. These are often carelessly taken as causes. Causes as such are beyond us, we can only discover the conditions. Our own interests always determine what we select as causes. Here Dr. Davis enters into an extended criticism of the economic interpretation of history which, following the unfortunate leadership of Professor Seligman, he evidently considers the materialistic interpretation of history. The "incompleteness" ascribed to the theory seems to me really due to the mistaken idea of the author.

People differ, and "greatness is a psychological attitude in the mind of the members of a society." At the basis of

¹Psychological Interpretation of Society. (Columbia University Studies in Political Science, vol. xxviii, No. 2), by Michael M. Davis, Jr. Pp. 260. Price, \$2. New York: Columbia University, 1909. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

this are four conditions, the suggestion of personality, position, prestige of vocation, force of tradition or antiquity. We must see men on two sides, first, that of greatness and second, that of achievement. Great men are created as well as creators.

Dr. Davis shows wide acquaintance with the literature in his field and familiarity with the views of the writers. Students of social theory will welcome the evidence he musters as well as the historical facts.

THE CONFESSIONS AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF HARRY ORCHARD¹

Reviewed by AGNES MILLER

The famous Haywood conspiracy trial of 1907 had as its central figure Harry Orchard, who was the chief witness for the state. He described on the stand the full details of an extraordinary series of murders in which he had participated. This confession, which is said to be without parallel in the history of American courts, first appeared as a series of magazine articles and has since appeared in book form.

The series of crimes was declared by Mr. Hawley, the prosecuting attorney, to have been intended "not merely to perpetuate the power of the 'inner circle' (of the Western Federation of Miners), but to control governmental affairs in different sections of the mining country." Beginning in 1899, the crimes extended over a period of seven years, and destroyed the lives of nearly a score of persons. They included the blowing up of the Bunker Hill and the Vindicator mines, the destruction of the railroad station at Independence, and the assassinations of Deputy Lyte Gregory and ex-Governor Steunenberg of Idaho. Repeated but unsuccessful attempts were also made on the lives of Governor Peabody and Mr. Bradley, head of the Mine Operators' Association.

The mere fact of Orchard's owning to

this list of crimes is not so remarkable. The extraordinary features of the confession are the motives which prompted it, and the manner in which it was made. Two or three days before the trial, Orchard said to Oscar King Davis, the special correspondent of the *New York Times*, that though a man who had done a great wrong in his life could never hope to atone for all of it, he believed that such a man ought to do what he could to set matters as far straight as possible. This was his sole motive in making the confession. He was led to do so through the efforts of Detective McParland, who visited him in the Boisé jail.

Orchard's state of mind during the recital of this story is very remarkable. He seems to have turned his back completely on his old associates and ideals. His narration was entirely voluntary; no compulsion nor threats were used to wring it from him, nor did he receive any promise of reward or pardon. Indeed, Governor Gooding said at the time of the trial: "Once when I was talking with Orchard he stopped me . . . afraid he would get the impression of a promise." There is nothing theatrical about the story. It is literal and detailed even to the point of becoming tiresome. Its author is uneducated and unskilled in the use of language. He has no power of generalization, but tells exactly what happened at certain specific times. He is entirely candid, and never attempts to spare or excuse himself. It is remarkable that he seems to have had no motive of personal revenge in all his crimes; he carried on his work of butchery purely for the sake of wages, and was quite willing to turn against his employers when his pay was not forthcoming.

It is worthy of note that Orchard was induced to make his confession before he professed religious conversion. The human sympathy he experienced in his contact with Mr. McParland brought about a moral conversion first; his religious change was a later development. When he speaks of the latter experience he does so frankly and briefly, without any false sentimentality. This apparent sincerity is one factor which helps make the confession ring true.

¹Confessions and Autobiography of Harry Orchard, Horsley, A. E. \$1. McClure, Pp. 255. This book may be obtained at publisher's prices through the offices of THE SURVEY.

SOCIETA UMANITARIA

THE MILAN FOUNDATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIAL AND LIVING CONDITIONS

ALESSANDRO SCHIAVI

ITS FOUNDER

Prospero Moisè Loria was born in Mantua in 1814 from a Jewish family. There, when still very young, he entered a commercial career with one of his brothers, trade being the only opening for Jews in those sad times. At thirty he went to Trieste and later crossed to Egypt whose viceroy, Mehmet Ali, prompted by an eager desire of promoting national wealth, encouraged immigration from European countries.

Prospero Moisè, making the most of the ability he had acquired in the wood trade and, also, of his good judgment and sagacity, succeeded in overmatching all competitors and monopolizing the sale of construction supplies for the vice-régal railways. Riches seemed to spring from the soil along his path. When, at fifty, he left Cairo, he brought back to Europe almost ten million *lire*.

After that he lived a very simple life in Milan. He gave up business, but his active mind spurned sterile leisure, and he set himself to consider social questions. Without technical or scientific books and under the sole guidance of personal experience, society appeared to him swarming with beggars, tramps and down-trodden wretches.

"Why," he was wont to say, "there ought to be a sort of Red Cross for these people. They are routed soldiers. Let us try to raise them up to the verge of self-help. Directly or indirectly, through alms, beneficent institutions, workhouses and prisons, a portion of rich people's wealth is now spent for their maintenance. Would not the money be better employed in one large work of assistance?"

On that very simple reasoning was built the foundation scheme of *Società Umanitaria*.

Following this philanthropic track, Loria first came to a decision of supply-

ing work to indigent laborers, in order to keep them afloat while unemployed, for he detested almsgiving. But while pondering on the best way of rescuing able-bodied workers, he did not forget to plan for helpless paupers, a system of assistance more reasonable and efficient than the existing one. And, by and by, he lit on two leading ideas: that of a *Casa di Lavoro* (an establishment where paid work should be supplied on request) and that of an *Ufficio di Indicazioni* (an office bound to give any information required by alms-men about beneficent societies). He thought that similar institutions, if opened in every place where they were needed, would reduce unemployment, tramping and begging. Such was his magnificent ideal, and when speaking of it he looked so calm and trustful that disbelievers were, in his presence, bound to a respectful silence.

In 1891 he twice offered to the municipality an annual sum of five thousand *lire* for the maintenance of the sort of workhouse he dreamt of, but, having met with denial, he drew a will devising all his property to the creation of *Società Umanitaria*. Three months later, on October 28, 1892, he suddenly died from pneumonia. On January 15, 1893, *Società Umanitaria's* first board came into charge, but a series of lawsuits and political causes prevented, until 1900, real work by the society.

NATURE, SCOPE AND MEANS

Two essential characteristics, clearly expressed by the founder in his will single out *Società Umanitaria* from other institutions of its kind. They are: First, its democratic nature. Anyone may contribute to the social funds and activities by subscribing one *lira* yearly, and subscribers may have their share in the direction of the society by participating

every year in the election of ten out of the fifteen members of the board and of fifty delegates chosen to discuss budgets and management; second, its aim. To poor people, whoever they may be, must be given the possibility of rising again to a better place, and the help offered them through paid work and education is planned to strengthen their efforts toward a higher level of living.

At his death Loria was worth ten million, but as the sum remained untouched for almost ten years, the interest made it worth thirteen million, giving the society an income of 600,000 *lire*. Of this 45,000 is pledged for patrimonial charges and 90,000 spent on management. The remaining 465,000 *lire* is spent as follows:

	<i>Lire.</i>	<i>Per Cent.</i>
Reducing unemployment ..	175,000	37.64
Technical education.....	200,000	43.
Help given land workers..	50,000	10.76
Co-operative ventures	20,000	4.30
Information bureau for applicants to beneficent institutions and legal and medical assistance office.	20,000	4.30

INQUIRIES AND STUDIES

To begin with, through the *umanitaria* Bureau of Labor, enquiries have been made and reports published on the following topics: Causes of unemployment, poverty, infantile mortality; standard of life and wages of Milanese workmen; life of landworkers in rice-meadows; Homeworkers; occupational diseases. Moreover, by means of the Information and Translation Bureau, trade unions are informed of leading facts concerning the wages, hours of work, and standard of life of laborers all over the world; they receive notice of labor markets, labor laws, new contrivances abroad—in short, they are kept informed of whatever may forward their development, prevent untimely and consequently ephemeral or even detrimental agitations and rouse them to the imitation of foreign achievements apt to ensure, in the present economical condition of Italy, durable conquests.

PRACTICAL WORK

It may truly be said now that *Società Umanitaria* cares for poverty-stricken persons at every time of their lives. In the workmen's dwellings, on which we will report anon, the little ones have their home, where they play and prattle under the supervision of a woman teacher while their own mothers are near at hand. The training system adopted gives highly commendable results.

After some years, when leaving the elementary classes at twelve, the future workers are offered by *Società Umanitaria* the means of acquiring a sound technical education. More than one hundred girls are partially fed and thoroughly trained in the female technical school. There are courses in general education, hygiene, practical cooking or housekeeping, ironing, dressmaking, embroidery, fancy underclothes and millinery. The girls must all book for the drawing class. There they acquire a good hand for sketching designs and the habit of thoughtful observation. From their first lessons they are, through an appropriate method, led on to use industrial appliances. The sketches, always drawn from life, are set to shape motives, compositions, interpretations in accordance with the intended calling of the pupil. Besides the daily courses, there are holiday classes for factory girls.

Young male workers are offered a series of technical courses. Lessons are given during daytime to boys not more than twelve years old and in the evening to their elders. These are taught elementary drawing and, in the several sections of the Applied Arts Schools, moulding, decoration, ornamental ironwork, carpentering, gold engraving, watchmaking, varnishing and tailoring. The Book School offers courses from the most elementary to the highest. And, lastly, there is a Workmen's Electro-Technical School where sound technical instruction fits pupils for good situations as foremen, superintendents and skilled electricians.

Along with the technical, *Società Umanitaria* tries to perfect the social and moral education of workmen. To that

end has been opened a practical School of Social Legislation, well attended, while many others are taught by correspondence after the method of Ruskin College, London. Five factory inspectors have been chosen by the Italian government from among the pupils of the school.

Società Umanitaria largely supports a Federation of Free Libraries with six reading halls in the town and twenty others in the surrounding country. It helps in the work of the Popular University by means of winter lectures on educational subjects delivered in Milan and of the organization of summer parties in places historically famous or industrially important.

FIGHTING UNEMPLOYMENT

Help for those out of work is given in several ways in order to meet, so far as it is possible, the main causes of unemployment. The high grades of organized workers who provide unemployment funds of their own, are helped by a subsidy through their organizers after the well known Ghent system. For these workers and, in a general way, for all of able-bodied unemployed, *Società Umanitaria* opened three employment bureaus in union with the Trade Council (*Camera del Lavoro*), the Bakers and Confectioners' Association and the Women's National Union. These register-offices not only supply quickly and economically the wants of employers and workers, but they enforce tariff agreements and labor laws, and try to raise the standards of employment agencies. Individuals out of work and quite penniless are offered paid work in the *Casa di Lavoro* and the Labor Colony.

The following figures sum up the assistance to men out of work during 1908:

	Number.	Working Days.
Workmen financially helped.....	1,145	26,309
Work found for industrial workers.....	5,304	
" " " bakers (continued work).....	543	
" " " " (recurrent squads).....	4,953	15,144
" " " " (extra hands).....	1,565	3,130
" " " confectioners (continued work).....	424	
" " " " (extra hands).....	139	
" " " female servants.....	530	
Housed in the workhouse (<i>Casa di Lavoro</i>).....	1,284	18,772
" " Labor Colony.....	181	4,205

The Workhouse or, rather, let us say, the House for the Unemployed, opened in September, 1907, is still in the experimental stage because of the novelty and the difficulty of the enterprise. It is open to both men and women, who bring a card from the employment bureaus. The inmates are set to work on paste-board goods, carpentering, stitching and knitting. Free luncheons are given them and a daily wage of not more than one *lira*. Their stay cannot be longer than twenty-one days, but they are admitted a second time in a year after a lapse of at least three months. The goods made in the house are sacks, schoolboys' wallets, boxes, blocks, bookbinding, underclothing and family linen, hosiery, lace, stuffed dolls, clowns, dresses, embroidery, babies' linen for kindergartens, traps, cages, hooks, dustbins, wooden-horses, painted boxes and toys.

The Labor Colony is situated in the copses by Gallarate, Ferno province, ten kilometers from Gallarate railway station and thirty-five from Milan. The unemployed booked at the Employment Bureau and sent to the colony by the Agrarian Office are apportioned to different agricultural works. The superintendent fixes the time they may stay. They are boarded and receive a modest daily wage.

In April, 1908, about forty-four acres had been plowed, a net of farm roads built and a wide plantation of mulberry trees, orchards and vineyards, many varieties of grain, vegetables and nurseries laid out. The kitchen-garden provides for the inmates of the house and there is a surplus which is sold at a neighboring market.

Società Umanitaria provides not only for the unemployed in Milan but for those who emigrate in search of work. Before starting they are offered

advice and information through a special office, and they are supported while abroad in case they be grudged their due by employers or disabled by accident.

CO-OPERATION

Co-operation is another excellent means of reducing unemployment. It is well to develop it and establish agents in all departments of production and sale. By such means prices are lowered, and mobility increased, there is a greater demand for workmen and a larger number of situations offered. The *umanitaria* knows how difficult it is for workers' co-operative unions to find the money to begin with, and to back their first efforts it has founded, together with other societies, an Institute of Credit for co-operative associations which, since 1904, has furnished credit for accredited co-operative unions. Moreover, *umanitaria* gives support to a Co-operative Federation for Production and Work and to another co-operative federation whose scope is to foster the progress of newly instituted unions by providing them work, cheap raw materials, and regular administration.

While in Milan industrial progress is clearly evident, the surrounding country is backward and the inhabitants live on a low economic and intellectual plain. *Società Umanitaria* tries to better these conditions through its Agrarian Office which oversees agreements made with landlords, and it encourages Peasants Co-operative Associations for renting tillable land and, whenever it is possible, supplies employment for farm laborers.

Laborers may want assistance for other reasons than idleness. An illness may befall them or some member of their family, they may have to contend with their landlord or their boss, may meet with an accident, and so on. *Società Umanitaria* steps in to succor by various means. Its Information and Assistance Bureau gives free information concerning Milan beneficent societies and the best way of securing their

help. Its People Secretariate furnishes the same kind of information on labor questions; its Bureau for Legal Assistance to Paupers offers advice on matters not pertaining to labor controversies; its Office for Legal and Medical Assistance to Victims of Labor Accidents is freely opened to workers. In 291 suits following labor accidents in 1908, the office secured an increase of 62,727,51 *lire* in the indemnities offered the victims.

Aware of the great influence exerted by healthy and economical dwellings on workers' bodies and minds, and in order to co-operate in mitigating a severe housing crisis, *Società Umanitaria* has built 480 rooms for workpeople. The dwellings (240 in all) have one, two or three rooms of twenty-two m. q. and seventy cubic meters, whose average rent is 120 *lire* a year. Every dwelling, even that of a single room, has modern plumbing and a balcony. Many houses have terraces. They are occupied by 1,000 persons and as many more will find accommodation in the buildings being erected in the western part of the town.

THE COMMON HOUSE

To co-ordinate the services and give better accommodations to all these institutions, their offices have been grouped in an ancient monastery, the so-called *Convento della Pace*, provided with large rooms, gardens and courts. Another contiguous edifice, lately used for industrial purposes, was acquired and made the seat of several co-operative associations. The largest of Milanese workmen's organizations, the Labor Chamber, will shortly settle there. So shall the Common House, the House of the People, be constituted. For the first time, perhaps, in the world's history, an institution groups and co-ordinates the efforts through which the working class shows its active craving to rise from the low standard maintained for centuries to a higher level. To this movement *Società Umanitaria* brings a substantial contribution.

COMMUNICATIONS

IN REPLY TO MR. JOHNSON

TO THE EDITOR:

Alexander Johnson, in his review of my paper On the Physiological Significance of that First Lesson, states that it is "marred by over-statements," and he invites me to visit "any dozens of modern institutions, which this pamphlet would lead us to believe he has never inspected with a sympathetic eye." That I am not altogether unfamiliar with "modern institutions," I may be permitted to explain that I have been connected with the New York State Board of Charities, either as commissioner, or state commissioner in lunacy, now upwards of twenty-eight years, and have had frequent occasions to investigate the management of, probably, as advanced and reputable modern institutions as there are in this country.

As regards the progress of these institutions in the education of the feeble-minded, the cure of the insane, and the reform of criminals, I have "never inspected with a sympathetic eye." I had a personal acquaintance with Wilbur, Seguin, Brigham and Johnson, who, the reviewer well says, "began with the enthusiasm generated by a great, new human conception, and devoted themselves utterly to the task of making men and women out of human waste material." I should mar this note with "over-statements," if I adequately expressed my surprise and enthusiasm on visiting the institutions of these "leaders" and personally saw how much of this "human waste material" "might be made capable of much happiness and of entire self-support under direction," by those who had the self-sacrificing spirit, courage and enthusiasm to devote "themselves utterly to the task of making men and women" out of it. Perhaps Wilbur had the greater task and won the greatest success, because the "human waste material" with which he made men and women was scarcely better adapted for that purpose than the "dust of the ground" from which the original man was made. It was inspiring to visit Brigham's institution and see the insane engaged in various industries and listen to his exposition of the "great, new human conception" of the curability of the insane, and his prediction that the "new methods had such splendid results that the hope of curing a large majority of the insane" would become "the inspiration of the alienists." And not less inspiring was a visit to the Massachusetts Prison for Convict Women when under the management of that noble woman, Mrs. Johnson, the leader in the reform of women criminals, and witness the number wearing the badge "T. & T."—"Trust and Truth"—emblem of the highest rank of attainment in that school of reform and proof of their fitness to be discharged—and learn that many of these women when

committed were certified by the judges to be the most dangerous, desperate and hopeless criminals ever brought into the courts of that state. To a judge who apologized for committing to her care a convict woman who was homicidal and boasted that she had been in all the prisons of Ireland, and many in the United States, Mrs. Johnson replied, "She is precisely the kind of convict for which this prison was created and if I cannot reform her I will resign my position."

It is a sad commentary upon our civilization that within a generation of the period when these great and honored "leaders," inspired by a "great, new human conception," actually made men and women out of "human waste material, . . . capable of much happiness and of entire self-support under direction, . . . their successors were seized with a veritable passion for segregation and complete custodial care of the whole class." The result of this lapse from the high ideals of the "leaders," on the part of their successors, we are informed, is, that "even the most devoted physicians think as much about the comfort and happiness of those of their patients who are not recoverable as the cure of the smaller number, who are." The outcome of this policy is that "the per cent of recoveries has remained stationary, or has even apparently diminished, with an enormous and rapidly increasing population of non-productive dependents."

The object of my paper was to revive the enthusiasm of the great "leaders" in the education of the feeble-minded, the cure of the insane and the reform of the criminal, by showing that the recent revelations of the mechanism of the human brain prove that there is a sound physiological basis on which the education, the cure and the reform of the respective classes, can rest. My contention is that if the inmates of our institutions for the feeble-minded, insane and criminal, were subjected to a rigid examination and continued treatment by physicians thoroughly familiar with the latest teachings of science as to the mechanism of the nervous system, and especially of the brain, the organ from which emanate every thought, word and act of the individual, and then the proper remedial measures were used, an incredible number who are now doomed to mere vegetative life, "might be made capable of much happiness and of entire self-support under direction."

My reviewer states that my paper is "marred by over-statements" and refers to the following quotation, "All of the inmates are placed on a dead level, and the treatment instead of being individual, is *en masse*." My professional life and work has been in civil hospitals in which it is assumed that every patient who enters is there for the sole purpose of being cured and discharged in the least possible time. As a consequence the

whole atmosphere is charged with enthusiasm, hopefulness and intense activity. Every new case receives immediate attention, and examination of the most careful and exhaustive kind, and the proper treatment is at once begun. The more dangerous, complicated and hopeless the case, the greater the interest and effort in effecting a cure.

Passing from such an institution into the lifeless atmosphere of an asylum where the inmates require only "segregation and complete custodial care," chills like entering a morgue. The arrival of a patient excites only the interest of the steward who is to furnish him a bed, clothing and food. Once supplied with these essentials to his "comfort and happiness," he is merged in the mass of inmates and his individuality is lost. He has become a permanent tax upon the people and thereafter much more thought and effort will be given to securing from the state appropriations for his "comfort and happiness," than in endeavors to fit him for "entire self-support under direction."

STEPHEN SMITH.

WORCESTER'S PRE-EMINENCE

TO THE EDITOR:

We are glad indeed to note in your issue of May 29 an article about Worcester, based on the facts we sent you, and we appreciate your using it. Your publication reaches so thoroughly the most earnest social workers that we do wish it might have more on the liquor problem, particularly as in the last few years there has been so much of interest taking place along these lines.

May we call your attention to one or two errors in the article as you have it? You say, "Cities larger than Worcester are 'dry', but under a state prohibition law," while the fact is that Worcester is the largest city in the world without saloons. Atlanta, Ga., has sometimes claimed to be the larger, and so has Memphis, Tenn., the latter of which, however, does not abolish the saloons until the first of July; but the estimate I furnish you is that furnished to us by Director North himself, of the Census Bureau, under date of January 23, 1909. Local estimates are wholly unreliable.

You also state "Worcester is the very heart of a large local option territory." You should have said, "No license territory," for all Massachusetts is under local option, that is, each local city or town has the option to vote "yes" or "no"; and some vote "yes",—that is, license; some "no", that is, no license.

You are certainly to be complimented on the splendid publication you are producing from week to week.

D. KING,

Chairman Massachusetts No-License League.

THE LAW AND THE ERRING CHILD

TO THE EDITOR:

IN THE SURVEY of June 19, reference is made to the attitude of the Children's Court of Buffalo, created by the law recently signed by the governor. The matter of the attitude of the law to the erring child has been the subject of much consideration for a long time, and this year found efficient expression in the enactment of a new statute (Chap. 478, Laws 1909), by which children brought before the juvenile courts, on whatever criminal charge, may, if convicted, be adjudged juvenile delinquents. The stigma of a specific conviction is thus prevented, the purpose being to throw every opportunity in the boy's way to "reform" without the need of living down a criminal record brought about more often through recklessness than vicious tendency. The new law applies to the entire state and practically supersedes the Buffalo court law in that respect. It was drawn by Robert J. Wilkin, and Charles F. Murphy of Brooklyn, whose brilliant work in the Assembly during the past session was marked by many such meritorious measures.

E. FELLOWS JENKINS,
Secretary and Superintendent.

New York.

OPENINGS FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

TO THE EDITOR:

The letter from Professor Wolfe of Oberlin in THE SURVEY of June 12, calls for information as to openings for "social service" into which students may go, whom he describes as almost ready to "give up the pursuit of their own individuality," but not ready for the ministry, the social settlement, Christian association, or the foreign field.

How about teaching in city schools? My impression, based on extended observation in New York and Chicago, is that a man or woman gets closer to human life, and has more opportunities there to serve, not "society," but his own and others' "individuality," than in the religious occupations named, and tabled, by Professor Wolfe. The advantage of teaching is that the social servant is paid for his work, and the economic motive, the presence of which Professor Wolfe recognizes clearly, may continue in exercise.

Meantime, the teacher in a city of the first class, his position secured to him by civil service conditions, has facilities for the study of social phenomena such as are not furnished elsewhere to the class of students described. The material is abundant and convincing. The great need of such students is not formal social service, but sociological study. Professor Wolfe describes an aroused state of mind; but it has not been satisfied in the case of students of most of the colleges. A doubt prevails

among many teachers in the colleges as to the reality of social phenomena. A certain mocking tone in conversation and quotation marks in writing are used to indicate an attitude toward social studies, by those who do not know social life as men on the margin of society know it. But the great cities, in which mature scholastic and charitable institutions have long observed conditions, furnish exceptional material for the study of human life. Above all things, immature college seniors, who have no training except in the economics classroom and such as comes from the exhortation of the various "social thinkers" who tour the colleges, should be kept out of social service until they have been taught to study and to handle social phenomena. We have too many social-ists, who know not even Karl Marx. Especially should the ministry and the settlement and the foreign field be spared from the men who have no training but the economic.

The profession of teaching in the large cities is the most fundamental and extensive salaried service rendered to social populations. Its openings for students as described are practically endless. It utilizes them and supports them, from the first day. It offers them a great variety of openings and positions secure from political interference. High school teaching here attains a dignity comparable to some college teaching. Even grammar school work has its rewards. And all the time the "social servant" is at work in the social laboratory and in an inspiring nearness to the great teachers who are the sources of assured social knowledge. Without that thorough training the "social servant" remains as the untrained man in the application of the other sciences—a humbug; or a critic of social theories. And of all these we have too many now.

WARREN H. WILSON.

WHY NEW YORK NEEDS A CITY PLAN

BRIEF FOR A CITY PLAN SUBMITTED TO MAYOR McCLELLAN, BY THE COMMITTEE ON THE PREVENTION OF CONGESTION IN NEW YORK CITY

1. Because of the lack of adequate co-ordination of the present authorities in making a city plan due to the city charter. Each borough president was required, by the law of 1903, to make a map of his borough, locating and laying out all parks, streets, bridges and tunnels, approaches to bridges and tunnels, and to indicate the width and grade of such streets, and to continue and complete the system of triangulation already begun in the Bronx (law of 1903, New York Charter, sections 438 and 439). Under the terms of this law this work was to have been completed by January 1, 1907, but only the borough of Manhattan has yet had a complete block tax map made in accordance with the requirements of the city charter.

A large part of the Bronx has a street system completed; Brooklyn has a street system completed in nearly seven-eighths of the borough; Queens and Richmond have merely tentative maps completed, not showing the street system; but block tax maps in Queens and Richmond are only well begun.

Each borough president (by section 444, New York Charter), subject to the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, is required to prepare a plan for the proper sewage and drainage of his borough. Despite this provision, however, there has not been any adequate planning of sewers in several of the boroughs as evidenced by the necessity for constantly relaying of sewer mains.

The local improvement boards in twenty-five districts (provided by sections 425-436 of the New York Charter) also have author-

ity granted to them, independent of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and they may make specified improvements without the approval of said board, provided the cost of such improvement does not exceed the sum of \$2,000.

The Municipal Art Commission has, by laws of July 20, 1907, the right not only to pass upon buildings, but to exercise a veto with reference to lines, grades, plotting of public ways, grounds, etc. Our present charter, therefore, gives us several bodies with conflicting authorities—all finally subject after sites have been purchased, to veto of the Municipal Art Commission.

To conserve the public health: A change in the laws is imperatively needed to conserve the health of the population. The present tenement house law permits most unhealthy living conditions, is robbing the occupants of interior courts of a six-story tenement, of sunlight below the third or fourth story. Only one room in four, under the present tenement house law, secures an adequate amount of sunshine. Arrangement of blocks in undeveloped areas, may be changed so that more light may be secured. The city should, moreover, be divided into zones, where land values permit to insure good living conditions for citizens with a small income, in sections of the city not as yet highly developed. The constitutionality of districting a city, has been confirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Francis C. Walsh against George Swasey on May 17, 1909, on appeal from the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

2. Proper provision must be made for small parks, playgrounds and open spaces. This can be secured only upon a basis of some knowledge of future development and is a most important factor in preserving the health of the community.

3. The development of sewers will depend upon the nature of districts. At present vast areas of the city are entirely without sewers and without some direction of the city's growth, as indicated by conditions in Brooklyn and Queens, there will not be adequate provision for sewers for the developing need of the community.

Although there are, at present, several commissions—The Public Service Commission, The Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, The Water Supply Commission and others, they are working necessarily without a knowledge of the city and its future development, which must be determined by a thorough study of the existing conditions and the enforcement of regulations and restriction as shall be deemed necessary and not exhaustive.

III. To adjust lines of transit to the changes necessary. With the present concentration of offices and factories in the lower part of Manhattan, the problem of transportation of passengers to and from their work, is greatly intensified. It will be impossible to handle the traffic without enormous expense unless some further plan be evolved for more normal distribution of offices and factories. Lines of transit cannot moreover be wisely planned according to the statement of the Public Service Commission and other commissions interested, until development of the community is more certain. At present an area intended for small family houses, can, in a few years be converted into a congested section, by land speculators and thwart the best efforts of the commissions with the limited authority of the Public Service Commission to secure proper transit facilities.

IV. To avoid waste of money for widening streets, etc. Several thoroughfares in the city need to be widened and several important diagonal streets need to be cut through. If they are to meet the needs of New York in the future, there must be some knowledge of the development of the neighborhood and the areas which they serve. Such development is a matter of conjecture, without however a very carefully worked out plan which will be enforced by the properly constituted authority. Streets should vary in width according to the nature of the locality and in enormous areas not yet laid out, there should be a variation from fifty or possibly sixty to ninety feet requiring parking on both sides of the street, if necessary for future widening.

V. To avoid waste of money in acquiring land for public purposes. New York is paying to-day enormous prices for land for public purposes, when it buys in localities where it is most needed under the present development of the city. A determination of the

development of the city by the proper authorities, will result in great saving along this line.

VI. To determine the method of distributing factories to the best interests of the city, the owners, and the workers so as to secure better sanitary conditions and improve conditions of living.

VII. To consider the limitation of the heights and volume of buildings for offices.

JOTTINGS

For Tuberculosis City.—Rev. J. A. Geisinger, pastor of a Methodist Church in Phoenix, Arizona, is in the East in the interest of a proposed tuberculosis city near Phoenix. The idea is to erect several series of cottages about central administration buildings, 100 cottages in each group. The cottages are to be of two general styles, to accommodate single or unattended patients, and to provide also for the consumptive who has his family with him. The cottages will be equipped for light house-keeping and will be practically independent units.

Because of the large number of consumptives who come annually to the Southwest with little or no means of support, the people in that vicinity are planning to take care of those cases in as humane a way as possible. It is not proposed to encourage more consumptives into the Southwest. On the contrary, the association, which will conduct the "City of Good Will", discourages such migrations.

Connecticut's Sanatoriums.—Instead of a single state sanatorium, the Legislature of Connecticut, has provided for the establishment of three hospitals to be erected respectively in Hartford, New Haven and Fairfield counties. These institutions will accommodate 300 patients, and will be built at a cost of \$175,000.

Directory of Trade Schools.—The Directory of Trade Schools in New York City, issued by the Henry Street Settlement, may be obtained from that organization by addressing them at 265 Henry street. The pamphlet is of especial help to teachers, settlement workers and parents wishing advice about the next step for the child just out of school.

Iowa Conference.—The Iowa State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held on November 7, 8, 9 and 10. The seventh is Sunday, and the pulpits will be filled with conference speakers. At 3 p. m. the annual sermon will be preached. The standing committees are: Charities, S. H. Crosby, Grinnell; the child problem, Miss Clare Lunbeck, Davenport; colonies for and segregation of defectives, Dr. George Mogridge, Glenwood; insanity, Dr. Max Witte, Clarinda; penology, H. E. Deemer, justice Supreme Court, Red Oak; public health, Dr. E. L. Stevens, Des Moines; scientific study of social problems, Prof. I. A. Loos, State University, Iowa City.

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Lady Aberdeen's Mission.—During the last few weeks the Countess of Aberdeen, wife of the lord lieutenant of Ireland, has been making a tour of this country in the interests of the poor tuberculosis sufferers of her country.

It is less than five years ago that Lady Aberdeen and others were startled to learn of the terrible ravages of tuberculosis among the Irish peasants. The ignorant peasant, living in a hermetically sealed hut in the cold weather, seldom opening a window, unsanitary and even filthy in habits, with a diet mainly of potatoes, was an easy target for consumption. At the outset of the campaign the greatest obstacles encountered were the ignorance of the people on the one hand, and the indifference of most of the political and religious leaders on the other. But so carefully and enthusiastically has the campaign been conducted that a reduction in the Irish death rate is becoming apparent for the first time in over fifty years. In recognition of the success of this campaign the last International Congress on Tuberculosis divided the \$1,000 prize for the best exhibition of a year's work between the Women's National Health Association of Ireland and the Tuberculosis Committee of the Charity Organization Society of New York.

Fast Growing Institute.—For the third time the Jewish Institute of Kansas City has outgrown its quarters and moved into a new building on Admiral Boulevard, with Jacob Billikopf as executive. The three stories of the new home provide gymnasium, baths, club rooms, library and an auditorium, with one floor given over to educational work including classes in English, manual and industrial training. A day nursery is planned.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILD WELFARE CONFERENCE AT CLARK

A five day conference which brought together 150 to 200 representatives of various organizations interested in children and attracted a larger audience of teachers and citizens of Worcester was held at Clark University beginning July 6. Dr. G. Stanley Hall, from whose pedagogical seminary have emanated the studies and so many of the leaders of thought in child study, was naturally the central figure of the conference and to him and Dr. L. Pearl Boggs, the secretary of the conference, those present were indebted for a well planned program of interesting papers, and for the pleasantest hospitality and courtesy that the excellent equipment of the university afforded.

The conference resulted in the formation of a permanent organization to meet annually and to be known as Child Conference for Research and Welfare. The constitution and by-laws adopted provide for a membership composed of any persons interested in the objects and willing to pay annual dues of one dollar and upwards.

The resolutions adopted by the conference were prepared by a committee of which Prof. S. S. Colvin of the University of Illinois was chairman.

After thanking Clark University for calling the conference and providing generous hospitality, and congratulating it upon its leadership in child study and in the establishment of a children's institute; and after thanking the various committees, and the organizations that contributed to the interesting exhibit which formed a valuable feature of the conference the following significant resolutions were adopted endorsing the bills pending in Congress introduced by the National Child Labor Committee to establish a federal children's bureau, and emphasizing the importance of scientific research as the basis for child welfare work:

Resolved, That the time has come, in the opinion of this conference, when all efforts for the amelioration of the conditions of childhood of a charitable and philanthropic nature should be based upon, and so far as practicable, guided by the results of scientific child study. And that only thus the various lines may be given a more scientific and the workers a more professional character.

Resolved, That the scientific work of the national government should be extended to cover the important phases of child research and welfare in order that the great practical results which the scientific bureaus of the Department of Agriculture and other existing departments of the federal government have attained, may be had also for the important problems of childhood. We, therefore, favor the establishment of a federal children's bureau and respectfully petition Congress to enact the pending Crane and Parsons bills for that purpose.

Both Dr. G. Stanley Hall and Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay spoke in support of these resolutions and emphasized the fact that a federal bureau was necessary as a unifying factor and supplementary to all that can be done by any private agencies if satisfactory progress is to be made in dealing with child life.

The resolutions were adopted unanimously.

The following officers were elected:

President, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, president of Clark University.

Vice-presidents, Ben B. Lindsey, Denver, Col.; Dr. C. W. Stiles, Washington, D. C.; Miss Patty S. Hill, Teachers' College, N. Y.; Dr. Hastings H. Hart, Russell Sage Foundation; Dr. Livingston Farrand, National Association for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

Secretary, Dr. Henry S. Curtis.

Executive committee: The president, the secretary, and Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president National Mothers' Congress; Miss Patty Hill, and Dr. C. C. Carstens, S. P. C. C., Boston.

The conference left to the executive committee the selection of six additional vice-presidents, an advisory council composed of representatives of organizations working for child welfare and a treasurer.

THE PREVENTION OF INFANT MORTALITY

A significant feature of the conference of the American Academy of Medicine on the prevention of infant mortality, to be held in New Haven, Conn., November 11 and 12, is the emphasis laid on the social side of the question. Aside from the medical section the conference will consider the institutional, philanthropic and educational aspects of infant mortality. Homer Folks is chairman of the section on institutional prevention. Prof. C. E. A. Winslow of the Laboratory of Sanitary Research, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, heads the section on educational prevention, and Edward T. Devine is chairman of the committee on philanthropic prevention. The secretaries of these three sections are, institutional, Miss Mary Vida Clarke, 105 East 22d street, New York; educational, H. I. Bowditch, Boston, Mass.; philanthropic, Miss Lillian Brandt, 105 East 22d street, New York.

The section devoted to institutional prevention will deal particularly with the need of training mothers. The section on educational prevention will touch on the importance of the baby as a citizen, and the relative importance of the various causes of infant mortality together with day nurseries, fresh-air societies, hospital relief associations, etc., will be discussed in the philanthropic section.

The New Haven conference is to be held under the auspices of the American Academy of Medicine. Dr. Helen C. Putnam of Providence, Rhode Island, formerly president of the academy, is chairman of the executive committee whose other members are Dr. George Blumer, professor of the theory and practice of medicine of the Yale Medical School; Dr. E. H. Gerrish; Dr. D. C. Hawley, of Burlington, Vermont; Dr. J. Madison Taylor, of Philadelphia; Dr. James H. McBride of Pasadena, Cal., the newly elected-president of the academy, and Dr. Charles McIntire of Easton, Pennsylvania, the secretary.

CONGRESS ON UNEMPLOYMENT

On July 3, at the office of the French minister of labor, definite arrangements were made for holding an International Congress on Unemployment in 1910 under the auspices of the French government. It is to be above all a congress of specialists. Only persons known to have made a study of unemployment, and representatives of governmental and private agencies for the prevention of unemployment or the lessening of its consequences, will be invited.

In nearly all the great industrial nations the problem of unemployment has ceased to be purely academic. The statistical investigation of the number of persons out of work, the organization of institutions for its prevention (such as employment bureaus, labor exchanges, the distribution of immigrants), and the innumerable methods of palliating the disastrous consequences of unemployment (out-of-work insurance, charity organization, etc.)—all of these aspects of the general problem have been studied in the light of experience by a large and increasing number of investigators. The more numerous these specialists become, the more difficult it is for them to keep track of what is being accomplished in allied branches of research and experimentation.

The problem of unemployment is substantially the same in all industrial nations. To be sure, the same method of treatment cannot be applied indiscriminately to all forms of unemployment. The remedies are not the same in those cases in which it is attributable to climatic conditions or to accidents, as in those in which it is due to general economic crises; nor is the same treatment adapted to farm hands and to industrial workers, to unskilled and to skilled laborers, to young people and to the aged, to men and to women, to the physically sound and to defectives. But whatever may be the forms of the evil or the character of the persons concerned, it is im-

possible to treat each type of unemployment efficaciously without at the same time considering the other aspects of the problem.

If, moreover, we consider not only the different phases of the problem and the numerous practical agencies concerned with it, but also the number of countries which have been compelled to deal with it, the desirability of an international understanding is evident. How can the general causes of unemployment be detected, and the most successful remedies be found, unless there be some comparison of the facts discovered and of the methods employed in different countries? The international nature of the problem is disclosed, furthermore, by the general crises that simultaneously affect the economic activities of all great industrial nations.

To investigate all the phases of unemployment at a single conference was manifestly impossible. For that reason it was proposed to devote the approaching congress to these three topics:

- (a) The statistics of unemployment.
- (b) Employment bureaus.
- (c) Out-of-work insurance.

In order that the congress may be productive of scientifically valuable results, an elaborate series of questions will be prepared upon each of these three topics, to serve as a basis for reports from all of the participating nations and organizations.

It is hoped, moreover, that an international bureau or official organization of some sort will result from the congress, the serious, scientific, and official character of which is sufficient to entitle it to the attention and interest of economists and sociologists generally.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF CHURCHES AT CHAUTAUQUA

The commission on the church and social service, appointed under the action of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, will hold its first formal meeting at Chautauqua, July 21-22. It will be remembered that such a commission was authorized by the council as result of a report of its committee

on the church and modern industry, adopted unanimously and widely distributed through the religious and labor press. The committee's concluding recommendation was in the following terms:

That this federal council instruct the executive committee to organize, under such plan as it may in its discretion find expedient, a commission on the church and social service, representative of the churches allied in the council, and of the various industrial interests, said commission to co-operate with similar church organizations already in operation, to study social conditions and ascertain the essential facts, to act for the council, under such restrictions as the executive committee, to which it shall from time to time report, may determine; and in general to afford by its action and utterance an expression of the purpose of the churches of Christ in the United States, to recognize the import of present social movements and industrial conditions, and to co-operate in all practicable ways to promote in the churches the development of the spirit and practice of social service, and especially to secure a better understanding and a more natural relationship between workingmen and the church.

In just what temper or form the commission will address itself to the grave task indicated in the council's resolution will be determined at the approaching meeting. The commission assembles at Chautauqua not for public discussion but for private conference. When it "finds itself," it will be in a position to state its purpose and plan. The commission is composed as follows:

Frank Mason North, D.D., chairman, Rev. Ernest H. Abbott, Rev. Z. N. Batten, President George C. Chase, D. D., Peter S. Grosscup, Pres. R. L. Kelly, Ph.D., John E. Lennon, Prof. Shailer Mathews, D.D., A. J. McKelway, D.D., William E. McEwan, D.D., J. H. Melish, D.D., John P. Peters, D.D., John Prugh, D.D., Arthur B. Pugh, Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch, D.D., Rev. J. U. Schneider, Prof. Edward A. Steiner, Rev. Charles Stelzle, Josiah Strong, Prof. Graham Taylor, Charles R. Towson, Herbert Welch, Prof. Herbert L. Willett, University of Chicago; John Williams, New York.

FOR THE BABIES OF SAN FRANCISCO

"When the fog rolls in from the ocean,
and the winds begin to blow,

And you pack up your belongings for
the seashore or the snow;
Won't you leave behind some money for
milk that's clean and pure,
For the little helpless babies of San
Francisco's poor?"

This improvised stanza contains more appeal than poetry; an appeal to the kind-hearted people of San Francisco to help the Women's Association of Collegiate Alumnæ to provide certified milk for the poor babies of the city. The stanza is printed upon 2,000 "coin cards" which have been sent to as many people by the association's committee, asking each recipient to help secure pure milk for the babies for one year.

The card also reveals several important facts concerning the value of certified milk for babies and makes the following appeal:

"Certified milk means health and a fighting chance against tuberculosis and other diseases. Certified milk means a decreased infant mortality. Surely the little ones deserve a chance. Help us provide certified milk for the babies who must otherwise depend upon milk from impure sources."

Another novel feature of the work was the placing of milk bottles in seventy-five of the large hotels, cafés, depots and general stores, with a large poster attached bearing the words, "Save the Babies." These bottles are placed in conspicuous locations, and already a large amount has been collected from them.

That the campaign is proving a great success is shown by the fact that during the first week \$135 was secured. The largest individual amount was twenty dollars sent by a young woman of Berkeley, but several contributions amounting to five and ten dollars have also been received.

During the first two days after sending out the "coin cards" \$55.55 was secured. Several cards contained five dollar gold pieces, but most of them held fifty cent pieces, the amount the committee expected.

It is interesting to learn how the milk campaign came to be inaugurated. One

of the members of the association, the mother of a small boy, noticed that her child appeared healthy and chubby, while the tiny infant of her maid was pale and thin. This baby was being boarded out by the Associated Charities. Upon inquiry it was learned from the secretary of the Associated Charities that the foster mothers taking care of these babies could not afford to buy certified milk. The first baby mentioned was being fed upon the certified milk, and the mother determined then and there that the little infant of the maid was entitled to the same healthy diet as children of more wealthy parents. She brought the matter to the attention of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ and the idea of the certified milk crusade was at once adopted.

The milk which the mothers of these babies secure is purchased at the grocery store and a recent test made by the Board of Health of thirty samples revealed the startling fact that twenty-five of them were not up to the required standard.

The certified milk companies have agreed to furnish the milk to the committee at cost, which for each baby will amount to about ninety cents more in a month than ordinary milk, and the money secured will be used to make up the difference. The committee will need about \$2,000 a year to carry out the work as planned. If the appeal is successful the work will be extended to the different maternity hospitals and settlements throughout the city in order that no babies whose parents are unable to provide the certified milk will be overlooked.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS

Among interesting pieces of legislation passed by the last Massachusetts Legislature is one providing for a homestead commission and another authorizing the incorporation of credit unions. The homestead commission is to consist of five persons to serve without compensation and to be allowed to spend only \$1,000. The commission's duty is to consider the propriety of having the com-

monwealth open up lands outside cities and towns "with the view to aiding honest, industrious and ambitious families of wage earners in removing their homes from congested tenement districts in the various large cities of this commonwealth to the end that such homes shall be self-supporting and ultimately pass into the hand of said families." The commission is to prepare statistics showing the probable expense and to recommend plans which are to be presented to the Legislature at its next session.

The credit union bill was introduced on the petition of Pierre Jay, recently savings bank commissioner. Mr. Jay has investigated this scheme in Europe where he found it very successful. It is an additional effort to provide financial accommodation for people of small means. It comes in the group with savings banks and savings bank insurance. According to the terms of the bill it is established "for the purpose of promoting thrift among its members." Such a union may receive the savings of its members in payment for shares or on deposit. It may lend to its members at reasonable rates of interest and it may invest its funds and undertake similar activities. In order to prevent other associations from using a misleading title, no other corporation of any kind may transact business under a title which contains the two words "credit" and "union."

The general management of the credit union is similar to that of savings banks, and all the safeguards thrown about the savings banks are provided for credit unions.

A CHANGE IN DEPARTMENTAL ISSUES

With this issue of *THE SURVEY* a new policy has been adopted with relation to certain departments which heretofore have appeared largely as compilations of brief notes and comment. Hereafter in the places of the regular departments formerly devoted to organized charity and tuberculosis will appear timely articles covering at some length one subject in these particular fields. It has been

thought that in this way these two departments will become more valuable and effective. The editors of both departments continue the same—Francis H. McLean for organized charity and Philip P. Jacobs for tuberculosis. The other departments, which lend themselves more readily to use in the old "departmental" fashion will not, for the present at least, be changed. The adoption of the new plan does not mean that the short notes which have thus far composed the organized charity and tuberculosis departments will not be used. Important news items in both of these fields will hereafter appear in the *Common Welfare* and *Jottings*. With the August mid-monthly number it is hoped that the *Delinquent Department*, which for years was edited by the late Samuel J. Barrows, will be resumed.

THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES¹

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Fort Wayne, Ind

The state board of charities, properly understood, performs a function peculiarly its own.

At its best, it is a purely supervisory body.

Its membership must be composed of people of high character who are well known in the community, and whose names are associated with other things than politics. Of course, they must be appointed by the governor, and before he appoints them somebody must make him understand that nothing but the best will do.

Its executive officer cannot possibly be successful if he has been known before as a politician, even of the highest stripe. Not even the secretary of the National Civil Service Association could possibly do for secretary of a board of state charities. He must be a man of broad culture, genial nature, keen observation and scientific habit of mind. He must have the enthusiasm of humanity highly developed.

¹An extract from a letter written to some persons who are trying to re-awaken a dormant state board of charities.

He must be an optimist, that is to say, he must believe in the possibility of the betterment of anything which is not as good as it should be, not merely of the things which are not as good as they could be.

Then the law must not be precise. It must be written in terms which will allow the board to read into it anything which their good judgment and the good opinion of the public will permit.

The board's first work is, emphatically, to know the situation in its own state and elsewhere. It cannot know its own state without a background of comparison. It must know conditions in its own state; it must know principles and it must know conditions in other states.

The board must be actuated by the principle of benevolent opportunism. Rome cannot be cleaned in a day; it took several hundred years to build it. People who are doing well, in general, must not be discouraged from doing better, in particular.

Once in a long, long time, something will be found so rotten that a petty revolution is necessary. When that is the case, it must be done in a striking, and even spectacular, way. Scare headlines in the newspaper, and things of that kind, are then allowable. But no board can afford to be spectacular until it has won the confidence of the public, and of the institution people, by months and even years, of quiet, effective work.

The board, to win, must have the confidence of the public and also of the institution. Reforms that are forced from the outside rarely last. A new method, forced on people from the outside, ill understood and feebly practiced, by people who have no sympathy with it, often produces greater evils than the old method which it has replaced. If an im-

proved method comes from within, inspired by the conviction of those who are to practice it, the gain is real.

Guided by principles like these, it is not long until the right board, rightly officered, wins the confidence of the people of its state, so that it stands between them and the institutions. When a scandal arises, the board's investigation is accepted as final; but most scandals can be forefended if the board knows all about every institution from the inside. In other words, not an occasional, spasmodic investigation, but an habitual, systematic, quiet, sympathetic oversight, is the way that the board must get its knowledge.

When such relations have been established, growing out of such principles, the board's real usefulness begins, and one can easily see how infinitely valuable it may be compared with any board of merely administrative functions. It protects the institutions from injustice and censure, it protects their wards, and it protects the interests of the state.

Incidentally the board must take the position that the institutions are right until they are found to be wrong. If there is a doubt they must have the benefit of it. On the other hand, no complaint or grievance, no matter how flimsy or unsubstantial, may be neglected. The veriest spiteful lie may give one a pointer, and not one of them, therefore, should be disregarded. The gravest and most serious charges may be groundless, and not one of them should be allowed publicity until certainty has been attained.

It will be seen from this that there are few people in the state fit to be members of the board, and nobody competent to be a perfect secretary. Hence we must do what we can with the best material at our command, for the best is none too good.



THE ORIGINAL LEAN-TO.

Designed by Dr. Herbert M. King and still in use at the Loomis Sanatorium.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE LEAN-TO

THOMAS SPEES CARRINGTON, M. D.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY AND PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS AND IN CHARGE OF THE BUREAU OF CONSTRUCTION

The telephone bell rang in the headquarters of the police department in one of our small eastern cities on a snowy day last winter, and someone asked that an officer be sent to a house in the suburbs with authority to arrest a woman who was maltreating her children. On the arrival of the patrol wagon the policeman found three little children sweetly sleeping on an open porch, comfortably bundled up and seemingly very healthy. Upon inquiry the next door neighbor told the officer that to leave children out in the storm in that way was barbarism and their mother ought to be punished. The mother of the children is a friend of mine, and when the story was told me I realized, as I never had before, what a task the various associations which are fighting tuberculosis have before them, in educating people not to be afraid of fresh air. Very few persons, unless interested through the illness of some friend, know how patients afflicted with consumption live and sleep in the open air, with little protection, through our long northern winters. Hundreds of patients are now housed in lean-tos which are found on the grounds of sanatoriums all over our country.

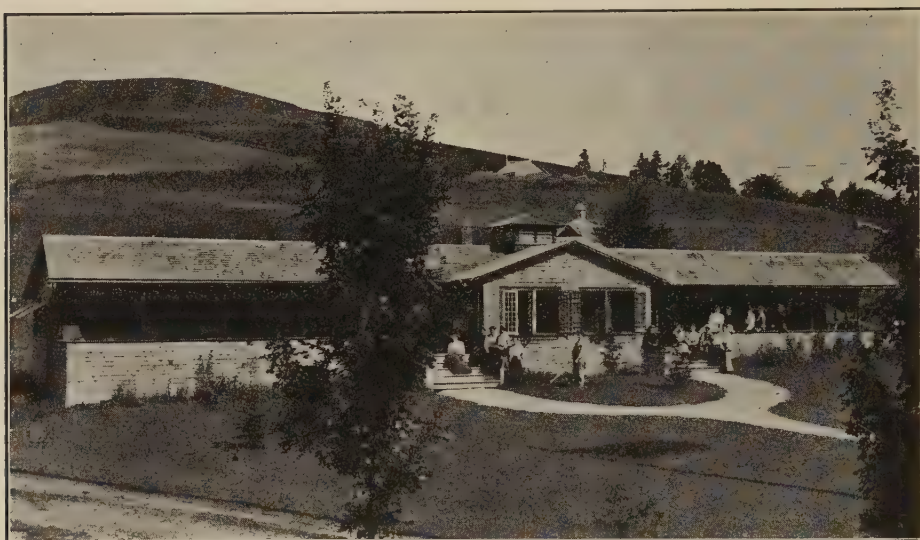
It is often interesting to follow the development of some simple invention from its inception. First it proves useful, then it is accepted, taken up and improved by thinking men and women, until it becomes beautiful, complete, and in its finished state, well adapted to carry out its purpose. In 1903, Dr. Herbert M. King of the Loomis Sanatorium needed more porch room for the open-air treatment of his patients. It occurred to him that an inexpensive open sleeping porch could be erected on the same plan as the old hunting lean-to which trappers and hunters build in a few hours and use for shelter in the back woods. His first lean-to was planned to shelter eight beds. It was built by the sanatorium carpenter from rough lumber at the cost of a few hundred dollars, and it was so cheap and easily constructed that Dr. King designed a second with a few improvements which he soon put up. The patients in this building were comfortable and liked their new quarters so well that this became a permanent part of the sanatorium.

From this idea has developed one of the best adapted buildings for tuberculous patients now used in the open-air

treatment of that disease. The improved lean-to is really two lean-tos built like the first and connected end to end with rooms in the center. The central rooms are heated by a stove and in one are lockers for the patients, a bath and toilet facilities, while the other is well lighted, ventilated, and furnished with comfortable chairs as a sitting room always accessible to the patients who sleep and live on the open porches.

As the open-air treatment of consumption received the endorsement of the medical profession, a demand arose for the best method of housing patients. Dr.

culosis. When examined, it is readily seen that they meet the requirements of the first description of the improved lean-to. Later modifications have tended to increase the capacity rather than to deviate from the type of building. In some instances the expansion has been upward. A very attractive example of this is the two-story lean-to built at Otisville, by the New York city Department of Health. The same department has gone a step farther in its plan for a four-story concrete pavilion to be erected on North Brother Island. It is proposed to have the front of this building, with the ex-



THE IMPROVED KING LEAN-TO AT THE LOOMIS SANATORIUM.

King's improved lean-to plan was published and soon appropriated by physicians and architects in many parts of the country. The lean-to idea must have been launched at the psychological moment, for it met with widespread popularity though in many instances it was enlarged and modified. The lean-to first described consisted of an enclosed center apartment from which extended at opposite sides two porches open at the front but protected in the rear and sides by walls, and covered with a suitable roof. Since this description was published a number of buildings of this type, some large and imposing, have been put up for the open-air treatment of tuber-

ception of the pillars, removable. When open each floor will be a reproduction of the floor plan of an improved lean-to. While in this instance the example of the designers of skyscrapers has been followed, others have enlarged their porch capacity by extending the ends of the lean-to. This has been done where sanatorium grounds are extensive, especially in parts of the Middle West. The Iowa State Sanatorium has a very good example of this style of lean-to in its pavilion for forty patients.

The experiment of enlarging the lean-to by increasing both the length and the height in the same structure has also been made. A building has been de-

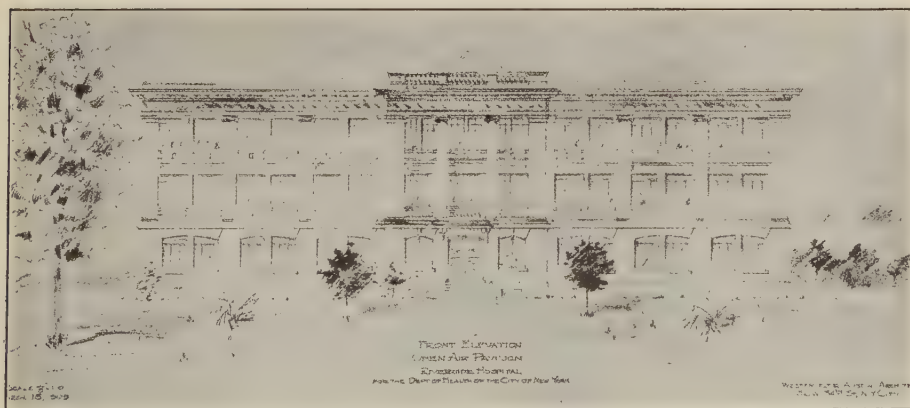


THE TWO-STORY LEAN-TO AT THE OTISVILLE SANATORIUM. BUILT BY THE NEW YORK CITY DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

signed for the Cragmor Sanatorium in Colorado Springs, which if erected, will be 400 feet long and two stories high with a capacity of a hundred and fifty patients. This plan is modified and slightly changed from the original type, but a building put up for the British National Sanatorium at Benenden, England,

was constructed on the lean-to plan and has all its essential features.

The original lean-to type was intended for housing incipient cases but, since its general adoption, at some institutions it is used for advanced cases. The building is made comfortable for very sick patients by closing the front with glass



THE PROPOSED FOUR-STORY CONCRETE LEAN-TO TO BE BUILT ON NORTH BROTHER ISLAND, NEW YORK CITY.



THE PAVILION FOR FORTY PATIENTS, IOWA STATE SANATORIUM.

windows or doors and heating the whole building by steam or some other method in cold or stormy weather. Still the building is best adapted for the treatment of early stage cases, and is most satisfactory when the front is left entirely open.

While making a rather extended inspection of sanatoriums through the eastern states for the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, I took every opportunity possible to ask the patients how they liked the lean-to and their opinion of its utility in the open-air treatment of consumption. While I feel strongly that the physician is the best judge as to the choice of an instrument in any method of treatment; it is often interesting to get the "other fellow's point of view," and after men and women have lived for months in a build-

ing, the opinion of the majority is a pretty good test of its comfort.

Most of the patients I talked with agreed that when the building faced the south, a canvas curtain was protection enough under every condition of weather. In many places the canvas curtain had only been used four or five times during the winter and then only in a heavy storm. At one sanatorium high up among the mountains, where glass windows had been provided to close the front of the buildings, I found the windows had only been used three times last winter, and all the patients in that lean-to agreed that a canvas curtain would have been protection enough. One man said that they had become so accustomed to the fresh air and cold, bracing weather that he would rather have the snow pile up around his bed or the rain beat in,



THE PAVILION BUILT ON THE LINES OF A LEAN-TO AT THE BRITISH NATIONAL SANATORIUM, BENENDEN, ENGLAND.

than suffer the discomfort of the close air when the front was put in.

Most of the institutions I have visited are in the northern states, and I could not find a patient who had suffered from the cold. The physician at a sanatorium in the mountains many miles from the homes of most of the patients, said that it was hard on them to be so far from their friends, but they got well quicker.

When visitors arrived they also brought colds, and he felt there was no better proof that the ordinary cold was infectious than his experience at the sanatorium. His patients would go week after week without a single cold developing, and then, after an influx of visitors from the city, an epidemic of colds would often go through the whole institution.

THE TREND OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION AND ENDORSEMENT

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

It has often been said that the form of organization of charity organization societies was of relatively little importance. This statement was based on the idea that the personality of the general secretary was the really predominant factor and that the rest was merely a question of detail. It would be a mistake for anyone to deny the vital issue involved in personality. On the other hand, it is against all human experiences to claim that exact form has nothing to do with the progress of a society or a movement. It is true that ultimately success or failure must depend upon the secretary. It is just as true that the question of form will have much to do either in furthering success or in bringing failure. It is not, therefore, a mere matter of technical detail to consider the changes which are taking place in the accepted form of charity organization societies, and what these changes portend. It is worth while considering also whether these changes indicate a distinct evolution and will become all pervasive in the future.

Up to the last few years there were two distinct forms of organization. We do not refer to the fact that some called themselves "charity organization societies" and some "associated charities." Though these two terms indicate different ideas, and might have indicated two sharply divided groups of societies, as a matter of fact they indicated nothing of the sort. There were many associated charities which were distinctly charity organization societies. In only a few

cases were associated charities very sharply distinguished from charity organization societies. In other words there was no actual association of charities. It is true that in many places *ex-officio* representatives of different charities and agencies were members of the associated charities. In some cases a few *ex-officio* members were also members of the board of directors of the associated charities, but this is as far as actual official association was concerned. On the other hand, the St. Paul society distinctly recognizes the association idea; for its Board of Directors is elected by a council composed of official delegates of the different charitable societies of the city, together with fifteen members at large, who are supposed to represent the subscribers to the funds of the Associated Charities.

These two forms of organization have virtues and defects. The first, that is where the board of directors was elected in the main by members of the society itself rather than by delegates of other charitable agencies, had this advantage. As it became more and more evident as years went by, that a co-operative society of this sort must have an increasingly important task to do in the community, outside of being a registering and investigating center, the board of directors being primarily interested in the society as such, was inclined to loyally support the growth of the society and to provide it with increasing funds. On the other hand, whenever such a society attempted

to suggest better co-operation between other agencies, or better ways of doing work, it was obliged to suggest them to other boards as an outside organization. No matter how delicately the suggestions were made, there was always the danger of other boards considering that they were interfering and trying to manage the whole philanthropic system.

The second form, the associated form, where the charities themselves actually elected boards, with fifteen members at large, made it possible to effect many reforms in the charitable system of a city. This result followed because the board was a representative body and not outside the societies involved. On the other hand the associative society labored under the handicap that, after all, its board simply represented other societies and was not composed entirely of men and women primarily interested in the associated charities as such, and willing to make constant sacrifice of time in its behalf. It is true that it has been claimed that the fifteen members at large really controlled the situation. On the other hand it is difficult to avoid the tendency under such circumstances to elect persons who are active in other societies, though this may sometimes have been accomplished. For this reason, in the old associative form, there was present the danger of the associated charities itself not adequately expanding as conditions required it.

THE PITTSBURGH PLAN

The Pittsburgh plan has already been somewhat described in these columns. The attempt was made here to combine the best features of the two older forms. It would have been fatal not to make the Pittsburgh charities feel that they were part of the new movement. On the other hand it was just as apparent that some form of organization would be required which would enable the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh to expand very rapidly. This expansion meant money and a board of men and women who would encourage an increasing outlay without even considering its possible effect upon other societies. In other words, their first love must be the Associated Char-

ties itself. It will be recalled that the Pittsburgh Central Council of Charities, a delegate body, composed of representatives from eighty or ninety social and philanthropic agencies, is not concerned at all with the internal administration of the Associated Charities. It elects ten out of twenty-one of the Board of Directors of the Associated Charities, and the other eleven are elected by the subscribers or members of the society itself. But the idea, all the way through, has been that the Central Council is not at all concerned with the internal administration of the Associated Charities. It is concerned with co-operation between the societies, with better methods of work, with furthering the broad social movement. In doing these things it will inevitably call upon the Pittsburgh Associated Charities as a corporation to undertake new activities and when this is done there will be the board of the Associated Charities to approve of added financial outlay. In other words there is a working out of a partnership between those who give to the charities of the city and those who are active as workers in these charities.

In viewing the results so far as Pittsburgh is concerned, one must, of course, acknowledge how predominant has been the question of personality; nevertheless there are certain strategic gains which the Pittsburgh organization plainly reveals. Like the society with form I, described above, it has an independent Board of Directors, which is ready to support constant extension of the work as suggested by its own members and by the Central Council, as the first year's experience of the society has revealed. On the other hand, there is this democratic body, the Central Council of Charities, which has already done many things and gives promise of a great future. As has been said, the difference between the Pittsburgh form and form II described above, is that it is implied most distinctly that the other charities as such are not primarily concerned with the internal administration or the finances of the Associated Charities, but they are concerned with its increasing growth and with the development of co-operation and a better understanding between

themselves. This gives limitless possibilities for growth on both sides, that is on the side of the different charitable agencies themselves and on the side of the Associated Charities as a separate entity.

BIRMINGHAM MODIFICATION

There is modification of the Pittsburgh plan in connection with the proposed organization in Birmingham, Ala., as well as suggested organizations in other places. This modification means the entire separation of the Central Council from the purely domestic arrangements of the Associated Charities as such. That is, the Central Council has nothing to do with the election of the Board of Directors of the Associated Charities. On the other hand, its power in the really important questions which concern them is just as strong; the only limitation being that it cannot bind the Associated Charities as a corporation to any expenditure of money or the taking of any public step, without the consent of the Board of Directors.

Sections 3 and 4 of article V of the Birmingham constitution reads:

Section 3. The purpose of the Central Council shall be to develop and foster the harmonious working together of all of the philanthropic interests of the city, in connection with both the individual activities of such organizations and in the carrying on of the social and sanitary reforms to which the Associated Charities is pledged by sub-division h, section 2, article 2, of this constitution. Provided, however, that the consent of the Board of Directors shall be secured before the Associated Charities, as a corporation, shall be considered to have approved of any action binding the society itself.

Section 4. In accordance with section 3, the council may request the Board of Directors to appoint special committees and in general shall serve in an advisory capacity to the Board of Directors.

The Birmingham form is the one which is now being suggested by the Field Department for many organizations in cities of varying sizes. It is even proposed in cities where the co-operating agencies will not number over eight or ten.

THE ROCHESTER PLAN

There is now being considered the question of the incorporation of the United Charities in Rochester, which will mean the merging of the present Society for Organization of Charity and the united co-operation of all the philanthropic agencies of the city. The details of the present plan show further modification, but as the final form is not yet a matter of public property, we cannot comment upon it at the present time.

WHAT RIGHT ORGANIZATION MEANS

After all has been said and done, is all this question of organization worth while discussing, may be asked? After all how much does form count? Then, too, is it not too soon to make any estimate as to whether the new form or any modification of it will work out any better in practice than the older ones? Considering the first two questions, our answer would be that form does count. Not only have we as evidence the experiences of older societies in their relations with charitable agencies, but also the way in which the suggested new form has tied up workers in many lines of social work directly with the new movement. In the past, when a movement was started for an associated charities in any city, it was most likely to have, at the start, the interest and support of social workers in every line. The word co-operation was worn threadbare, and there was much discussion as to just what the new organization meant to the allied social forces. The trouble was that when the actual details of the organization were worked out there was no place in the scheme for many of the most active social workers. That is while everyone was ready to co-operate, just the method of bringing people together in an efficient way was not worked out—that is so far as inter-relations were concerned. It is true that the best societies organized their case committees and other special committees. In doing this they of necessity called to their help some of the best workers in the city, but after all this was dealing with them individually; it did not bring the whole group of social workers together; it did not

further the amicable introduction of new methods into societies or the easy and amicable working out of co-operation between them, especially where their boundaries crossed. Not that a great deal of this was not worked out, but there was nothing in the organization itself which directly furthered the general diffusion of better understanding, better methods of work and the all embracing support of the charitable and social agencies of the city in any forward step in social reform. In some cities this situation of real non-co-operation was modified to a degree by conferences, Monday clubs, special committees, etc. By non-co-operation we do not mean lack of co-operation between the associated charities and the individual charitable and social agencies, but rather that the situation meant that one had the associated charities as a center whose spokes connected it with all of the other agencies of the city, but as between all these other agencies there were not the corresponding spokes. So the clubs, and

conferences, etc., mentioned before, have been an approach to the same end, but of necessity not a complete one.

Personality has, of course, worked miracles under these conditions, but after all, with the exception of a small group of societies which have followed the St. Paul plan, the real associative idea of the associated charities movement has not the most favorable conditions in which to grow. For that reason those who are experimenting in Pittsburgh and other cities with a movement which automatically brings the societies together at the start, should feel that a great responsibility rests upon them in demonstrating just how much can be accomplished with this favoring condition. At least a favorable form of organization may be considered to be a favoring condition.

We shall deal in the August mid-monthly number with the relations between commercial associations, the charity organization movement, and the charities endorsement movement.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Department Editor

VINE DAY

The children in the public schools of Washington this year for the first time observed vine day. The announced purpose of the new holiday, which is an interesting supplement to Arbor Day, is to beautify with vines the back fences that abut on streets, or on those alleys which are generally used as thoroughfares.

IOWA WOMEN TAKE A STAND

At the recent biennial session of the Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs, the following resolution, introduced by Mrs. William T. Johnston, an earnest civic improvement worker, was unanimously adopted:

"Resolved, that the Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs recommend that every club in the federation lend its influence and help to civic betterment in the coming biennial period, and in all possible ways help promote a campaign that shall result in a general civic awakening throughout the state. The health, happiness and safety of the commonwealth will be advanced and we should work for a more beautiful Iowa."

The Iowa Federation contains 379 clubs and 14,000 members.

AN ANSWER FROM LOWELL

Doubtless a good many persons, studying the foreign exhibits at the inspiring City Plan Exhibition in New York in May, shook their heads solemnly and wondered when American cities would be ready, and if they ever would be, to undertake such town planning in even the new and outlying sections as is undertaken in Europe. Perhaps they said to themselves that great cities, like New York, with congestion problems, might take it up; but what about the smaller cities? Well, here is an extract from the report of the superintendent of parks in Lowell, Mass., as it is printed by the park commissioners. He has been telling of the rapid growth, present and prospective, of Lowell, and he says: "Lowell has room in which to grow. There is nothing in her way. The important question is, How shall she grow? . . . Nothing really worthy of the name of art is ever attempted until the artist has first clearly conceived in outline the whole plan or plot of his undertaking. There are no accidents. Precisely such a condition applies to a great city. A large tract or territory should be acquired in advance of its growth. A topographical commission should be appointed to survey its area and

study it in all its features and surroundings. The proper sites for parks, squares, commons, broad boulevards and fine drives should be selected and reserved. Proper restrictions should be placed on property. In short, all that has not been done in the past in laying out the old part of the city should be done in the new; and this should be done in advance." It looks as if Lowell were ready.

BOSTON—1915

The "Boston—1915" movement, which has been fully described in this magazine, has issued folders not only interesting in themselves but full of suggestion for other places. Two samples are given on this page, and below them the pledge card.

THE CIVIC PARADE

Parades of the police department, of the fire department, and even of the street cleaning department are fairly familiar an-

WHAT YOUR ORGANIZATION CAN DO FOR

"BOSTON—1915"

"The Finest City in the World."

Every organization or group of people in Boston, whatever its special interests may be, can do eight things for "Boston—1915" and begin them promptly:

1. Discuss the "Boston—1915" movement until its purposes and methods are clearly understood by every member.
2. Review the ideals and possibilities of its own particular work.
3. Learn what is to be learned from other cities, here and abroad, where success has been made along these lines.
4. Agree on a statement of everything in its particular field which Boston should or might achieve during each of the next six years.
5. Definitely determine its own part in this progress, looking to an exposition of accomplished facts in 1915.
6. Submit their plan to "Boston—1915," which, if it adopts it into the "Boston—1915" program, will put the whole strength of the city back of it.
7. Pledge itself to accomplish the task it sets itself—and then see how much better it can do than it promises.
8. Co-operate in good work with every other organization, that the whole city shall work for and with "Boston—1915."

"Boston—1915" conflicts with no organization nor duplicates any work now under way. On the contrary, by bringing about voluntary co-operation, it eliminates overlapping and enables every organization to secure not only the help of every other, but also the help of the large body of the public which does not belong to any organization.

"I am going to make a world not certain to be saved, a world the perfection of which shall be conditional merely, the condition being that each several agent does its own 'level best.' I offer you the chance of taking part in such a world. Its safety, you see, is unwarranted. It is a real adventure, with real danger, yet it may win through. It is a social scheme of co-operative work genuinely to be done. Will you join the procession? Will you trust yourself and trust the other agents to face the risk?"—"PRAGMATISM," BY WILLIAM JAMES.

A 1915 FOLDER—HINTS TO ORGANIZATIONS.

WHAT YOU CAN DO FOR

"BOSTON—1915"

"The Finest City in the World"

1. JOIN THE CITIZENS' ASSOCIATION OF YOUR DISTRICT.

Because individually you are comparatively weak. In accomplishing the best things for "Boston—1915" it is only in association with other people of your district that you will be strong enough to do your best work.

You can get full information concerning the Citizens' Association in your district by writing, telephoning (Haymarket 854), or calling at the Central Headquarters, Room 67, No. 8 Beacon Street.

2. WORK HARMONIOUSLY, IN A FRATERNAL SPIRIT, WITH YOUR ASSOCIATES IN THE CITIZENS' ASSOCIATION

Because the grafter and the demagogue get their power through being able to appeal to the prejudices that come from misunderstandings and quarrels of good citizens.

3. HAVING JOINED THE CITIZENS' ASSOCIATION, WORK WITH IT.

Study and try to understand the needs of your district and your fellow-citizens, and the aims and ideals of your association. Study the "Boston—1915" movement and see how it can help your purposes and ideals, and what your association in turn can do to help "Boston—1915"; whether it will show as its work the finest playground the finest school, the finest factory in a certain line, or the finest possibilities for a good living for a man earning an average wage, in the exposition of "Boston—1915, the Finest City in the World."

4. PLEDGE YOURSELF TO WORK FOR "BOSTON—1915," BEGINNING IMMEDIATELY, AND BRING OR SEND THE PLEDGE TO THE HEADQUARTERS OF "BOSTON—1915."

If it is not possible for you to give time, you can substitute money, but what is wanted is personal interest and personal service.

5. JOIN THE NEW CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

If you are a business man, or a professional man, it will help you to develop the industrial and commercial possibilities of your own business and the whole city of Boston. It is part of the "Boston—1915" plan to show at its exposition the finest factories, shops, the best relations between employers and employees, and a city that does more for its citizens, at a lower rate of taxation, than any other city in the world. The New Chamber of Commerce will help you to do your share of this work.

6. INTEREST ALL THE OTHER ASSOCIATIONS THAT YOU ARE CONNECTED WITH—YOUR CHURCH, YOUR CLUB, ETC.—IN "BOSTON—1915."

For further information regarding "Boston—1915" write, telephone (Haymarket 1915), or call at "Boston—1915" headquarters, No. 6 Beacon Street.

A 1915 FOLDER - WHAT A CITIZEN CAN DO.

"BOSTON—1915"

"THE FINEST CITY IN THE WORLD"

19

I believe all citizens should unite definitely to work for their city, and therefore pledge such service as I can give to "BOSTON—1915."

Name _____

Address _____

I am a member of the following organizations, which are likely to be interested in "Boston—1915."

This card may be given to an usher, or to the attendant at the door.

THE 1915 PLEDGE DISTRIBUTED THROUGHOUT BOSTON

nual city events, and excellent things they are. But in Denver they have a real civic parade—that is the name given to it—which includes a presentation of all the

phases of municipal activity. From this year's parade, which took place a few weeks ago, the steam rollers are said to have been the only portion of the service omitted. Even the health commissioner, his deputies, doctors, nurses and inspectors were out. There were floats for the bath houses, with the legend "Come on in, fellows; the water is fine!" The Park Department was represented, not only by the marching of its employees but by floats to illustrate its work, and there were floats filled with happy children to illustrate the city playgrounds. It is a great annual event, concretely giving the citizens an appreciation of what their city does and of just what the taxes go for.

A DREAM FOR NEW ORLEANS

Significant of the realization that has come into American municipal life, that, to secure efficiency and comfort for those who dwell in them, cities must deliberately plan for future growth and expansion, is a great map prepared for New Orleans. This is the work of Frederic W. Brown, a consulting architect of that city, and while he entitles it a Dream of a Renaissance, it seems to be a practical sort of dream. The emphasis is put, very properly considering the probable future of New Orleans, on the improvement of shipping facilities by water and by rail, and an elaborate scheme is worked out. A park system also receives considerable attention, and the whole study is well calculated to arouse popular interest in the possibilities of New Orleans—the purpose, no doubt, that Mr. Brown had in view, rather than an offhand adoption of his own vast scheme. His plan well deserves study.

IDEALS OF KANSAS CITY, KAN.

Mention has been made in this department of the progressive civic work of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade. No feature of American municipal life to-day is of better promise than the commonness with which commercial bodies are interesting themselves in civic betterment. In some printed matter which comes to the department from the Mercantile Club of Kansas City, Kan., itself another excellent example of that kind of organization, there is a convenient statement of the reasons that lead a commercial organization to take up questions of civic betterment. The club's ideals for its city are stated as including "big and growing industries, strong business concerns, beautiful parks and boulevards, clean streets, good public buildings, attractive homes, fine schools and churches, ample playgrounds, well lighted streets, good water, adequate railroad facilities and an advancing real estate market—a city with a militant civic spirit." Now these are the ideals which any wide-awake body of merchants have for their city, and it is not surprising that increasing numbers are appreciating that sim-

ply a pushing of business will not realize them, and that one of the best ways to help business is to help the town in these other ways. And then a great deal depends on the sort of man who is secretary.

CIVIC LEAGUE OF ST. LOUIS

The Civic League of St. Louis, which is one of the strongest civic organizations in the country, has issued in pamphlet form, under the title Year Book, 1909, the addresses and reports of its last annual meeting. The report of the executive board gives these figures: "On March 1, 1906, the membership roll contained 809 *bona fide* members—on March 1, 1909, it contained 1,547 members, an increase in three years of almost 100 per cent. At the close of the fiscal year, March 1, 1906, the executive board was confronted with a deficit of \$285.83. On March 1, 1909, the treasurer's report indicated a surplus of \$3,135.08. The total income in 1905-6 was \$4,487.08; in 1908-9 it was \$11,642.50, an increase of approximately 150 per cent." That the league has done a good deal more than simply look out for itself is well known to those who read this department. But the very fact of such growth shows a popular support which is sufficient evidence in itself that the league has been doing good things. The address of the retiring president, H. N. Davis, contains toward its close these significant words: "I would not be understood as advocating less attention to the commercial and industrial, but more to the civic needs—those urgent demands to make the city more convenient, comfortable and beautiful—for these have come to be essential elements in the commercial development of every city. Cheap coal, factory sites and free water are no longer the only attractions which influence the location of a factory. Employers and employees must have comfortable homes. Transportation facilities must be adequate, parks and playgrounds must be supplied, clean streets and a clear atmosphere and good schools must abound. These are the features which are going to be more and more emphasized by our rapidly growing cities."

EDUCATING BUSINESS MEN

It would be well if the following quotation could be properly printed and conspicuously hung in the meeting room of every commercial organization in the United States. It is taken from an address delivered by H. D. W. English, formerly president of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, at the joint convention of the American Civic Association and the National Municipal League last fall. Happily, the whole address has been printed as a separate leaflet. "The best work an individual citizen does," said Mr. English, "is that for which he receives no pay . . . and the

best work any commercial organization is doing, in taking up great questions such as have been outlined [that is, civic questions] is that silent, retroactive influence upon the membership itself—the education of the individual business man to the supreme importance of a thorough knowledge on all civic questions which have in the very recent past been decided for him, while he was so busy at his daily grind. . . . This unconscious education of the business man that is silently going on in commercial organizations, as the individual member lends himself to civic and social questions, leads him finally to determine to settle these questions honorably. That is, giving more of himself, the need of his check will soon disappear. He soon finds that it is idle and deceiving for men and women to build summer homes, hospitals, wage war on tuberculosis, when commercial methods of the present day are increasing the need for such places and such work. That hundreds of thousands of dollars to equip modern mills must, to be a future commercial success, carry with it other thousands of dollars for decent homes for workingmen to live in who can in turn give the full equivalent in healthy and effective service in these mills. . . . He will find that the so-

cial welfare of his men is absolutely a part of the welfare of his business."

PLAYGROUND CONGRESS PROCEEDINGS

The Playground Association of America has adopted the wise plan of publishing the proceedings of its recent congress in twelve installments. These are issued in uniform pamphlet form, so that at the end they may be bound up into a single volume, uniform in style with the association's preceding publications. Each pamphlet moreover is to be devoted to a single general topic. In this way the congress data on any particular subject are put in compact and convenient form for persons specializing on that subject. Not only that, but much of the matter appears with great promptness. The first pamphlet, containing a general survey of the congress, the letter on playgrounds that was written to the congress by President Taft, and the full report of the conference of municipal delegates on the question of a quiet observance of the Fourth, appeared only about two weeks after the congress adjourned—in marked and grateful contrast to most issues of proceedings, usually six to ten months out of date.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN R. COMMONS, Department Editor

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

WISCONSIN INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE

The Wisconsin committee on industrial insurance consisting of seven members has been organized. The three members elected by the Senate are John A. Sanborn, Ashland, chairman; E. F. Fairchild, Milwaukee, and John Blain, Boscobel. The four Assembly members, appointed by the speaker are, Wallace Ingalls, Racine, chairman; C. B. Culbertson, Stanley; Walter Egan, Superior, and George Brew, West Milwaukee.

Five of the seven members are attorneys. George Brew, from West Milwaukee, is a manufacturer. Representatives of organized labor have expressed regret that Mr. Egan, a stevedore from Superior, the one man from working class ranks, is not in sympathy with either the Federation of Labor or the Wisconsin socialist movement.

At the first formal meeting of the committee on July 10, Carl Watrous, political reporter on the *Evening Wisconsin*, Milwaukee, was chosen secretary.

The outlook is favorable for co-operation with the Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission and the New York Employers' Liability Commission.

IRENE OSGOOD.

MINNESOTA COMMISSION AT WORK

The Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission has sent out the following letter, asking an expression of opinion from all persons who have studied the question of workmen's compensation:

"The Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission at its first meeting decided to ask the press to publish throughout the state a request to all persons interested in the matter of procuring legislation to compensate employes for bodily injuries received in the course of employment in such a way as to be just to the employers and the employes and fair to the state, to prepare to present to the commission in writing at a future time all information and suggestions they have upon the question.

"The commission is particularly desirous of securing the views of all of the following classes of citizens: (a) Workingmen; (b) manufacturers, mining companies, railways, and all other employers of labor; (c) the bench and bar; (d) employers' liability and accident insurance companies; (e) economists; (f) all others who have made a special study of the subject of changing the theory of liability from that of negligence to that of a risk of the industry.

"Communications respecting the matter may be addressed to anyone of the undersigned.

"The commission is especially desirous that the communications cover some features of the following subjects:

"(1) Whether you favor a compensation act.

"(2) If so, whether you favor a compulsory or a permissible compensation act.

"(3) A, The industries that should be covered; B, the basis of compensation—whether upon a wage schedule, a lump sum, or how; C, the method of creating the fund from which the payment should be made; D, the manner of administering the fund; E, the constitutionality of the method which you suggest.

"GEORGE M. GILLETTE,

"W. E. MCEWEN,

"H. V. MERCER."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY

Maine has taken its place with the states which have abolished the fellow-servant doctrine as a defense to the employer in case of personal injury to workmen. The governor recently approved a bill which makes employers responsible for accidents caused by defective works or machinery which has been neglected or overlooked by themselves or by any person in their ser-

vice whose duty it was to see that the machinery or works were in proper condition. Contractors and sub-contractors are looked upon as being in the service of an employer if he owns the works or machinery which caused the accident. In such cases the employer is responsible for the acts of the contractors. The law applies to all workmen except domestic servants, farm laborers, and those engaged in cutting, hauling or driving logs. A limit of four thousand dollars is placed on the damages which may be recovered in case a man is instantly killed. If death is not instantaneous but is preceded by a period of suffering the maximum damages are five thousand dollars.

These provisions do not go far toward solving the problem of industrial accidents. They are based on the old doctrine of negligence; and under the new law the workman must still prove that he did not contribute in any way to causing accident.

CONTRACTING OUT

Chapter 33 of the Maine law for 1909 prohibits employers from entering into a contract with his employes which will exempt himself or any other person from liability for injuries received while in his employment, and resulting from his negligence or the negligence of any person employed by him.

THE TREND OF THINGS

A correspondent in the Contributors' Club of the *Atlantic Monthly* has discovered in a "popular" publication of the early fifties some comforting advice on The Advantages of Consumption. Here are the four statements on which the argument is based:

"First. Consumption gives time for reflection and thought."

"Second. Consumption is seldom, to any great extent, accompanied with pain."

"Third. Consumption seldom dethrones the reason."

"Fourth (and what a delightful climax!) Consumption ends in death."

"These points are amply argued, and even illustrated and proved by the story of a young girl who was so fortunate as to have contracted this desirable disease, and through the benign dispensation was able in the 'time given for reflection and thought,' to prepare herself for the 'fearful scenes of Eternity.'"

* * *

The old story of Justice and the Jail is retold in the July 3 number of *The Outlook*. This time it is the lockup that is considered but the same conditions are present that generally obtain in county jails as told in the report of the American Prison Association issued last year. Dirt, lack of ordinary sanitation, crowding and absence of

segregation—these are the familiar characteristics that are once more brought to the attention by *The Outlook's* article, written by "an inmate" who concludes that "the chief reason why prisons go wrong at present lies in the circumstance that what goes on within them is so effectually shrouded from public sight. The ordinary prison sojourner, if he reports his experiences after release, is for various reasons not believed. His assertions are attributed to misunderstanding, resentment, or malice. Having lost his character by the fact of imprisonment, the public rejects him as a competent witness. Besides, the ordinary "convict" is not a scientifically trained observer, nor is he one who can state his observations effectively. Those who can, prefer usually not to advertise themselves as criminals. Hence prison officers feel secure in doing about as they please within very wide limits."

The writer believes that the facts he states "must be unknown to the general public, since, if known, conditions would be speedily altered. If, for example, the contracted cells are over-filled from lack of room it is a simple matter to build increased prison space. . . . For the public to have under its own wing an institution favorably constructed and managed for the

interchange of infection is quite out of harmony with the social will, and such a condition exists only because the people have lost efficient oversight in the field of their penal institutions."

* * *

Two of the July magazine articles take rather divergent views regarding the church and social movements. In the *American Magazine* Ray Stannard Baker attacks what he believes to be the lamentable inefficiency of the churches in meeting the vital questions of the day. The missions which "get at" men and put them on their feet he extols, but of the average churchgoer he says: "They worship with the working man and then turn around and charge him an exorbitant rental for the home he lives in, they take fat profits on the necessities of life, they work women and little children long hours at low wages—and out of the proceeds they live luxuriously, while the working-man scrapes along miserably in his tenements. No, it is not *real*—this religion. It is "brother" only on Sunday; and the masses of grown men and women in poor neighborhoods know it. They prefer the honest openness of the saloon, the frank cheapness of the nickel theater, where they can pay for what they get, to the doubtful largess of the church."

That the church has lost its hold on the masses; that its influence has declined in recent years is true, writes Hayes Robinson in the *Atlantic Monthly*. But the decline is not, at bottom, due to an inadequate grasp of human needs. "We must not get the commissary wagon ahead of the colors. To uphold the standard of moral and spiritual values keep it to the fore, make its meaning known and its prior claim heeded, is the highest, broadest and ultimately the most practical service of the church to humanity in all time, no matter what the hue and cry of this age or that, no matter what the new and startling form of old, old problems. Let it adopt any lesser ideal, subordinate it, or allow its summons to be drowned in the roar of socio-economic machinery or political agitation, and civilization all along the line sinks to lower levels, as surely as armies retreat when the heights are abandoned."

In other words the church's duty is not to become arbiter of institutions—"trade unions, employers' associations, political parties, systems of industry and forms of government. . . . It has no mission to things—relations—forms; it has a mission to human lives,—one, of course, which should vitally affect every outworking of those lives; but the word of inspiration and help must strike through the institutional shell to the living germ. . . .

"The church has no need to follow after strange gods in order to affect modern life and share in the world's work of human betterment. Is it powerless to inspire practical sympathy for the oppressed, the destitute, the suffering, or to arouse interest in

their economic problems, unless it can prescribe another infallible specific for poverty and misfortune? Is it powerless to throw its weight in behalf of civic righteousness and stir men to action, unless it becomes an investigating bureau and prints the records of candidates, or proclaims the relative ethics of contending theories of taxation, finance, and administration? Is it powerless to create active, intelligent interest in education, in the safeguarding of public morals, in the protection of child-life, unless it maps out school systems or conducts political campaigns? Is it impotent to lead men to live in the spirit of good-will and brotherhood; and if it is thus impotent, can we believe it competent to frame any scheme or set of relations that will establish compulsory brotherhood by machinery?"

The same general idea is expressed by Jeffrey R. Brackett in an article contributed to the religious papers through THE SURVEY Press Bureau. Mr. Brackett writes: "But, generally speaking, the church should not try to become the organ of any political or industrial movement, in defining methods. It will do its part best if it arouses men to try to live religiously—to love mercy, to do justice, and to walk humbly with God. That is its particular work, which is as useful to-day as ever, and will be to-morrow! The clergy can find no better task than thus serving the church inspirationally."

Death of Mrs. Emily E. Williamson.—As we go to press, we learn of the sudden death of Mrs. Emily E. Williamson of Elizabeth, N. J., which occurred on Tuesday morning, July 13. Mrs. Williamson had not been in good health for some time but her death was unexpected. Her place in New Jersey social work was unique, and practically all progress in charitable and civic work has felt her helpful influence. In a forthcoming number of THE SURVEY an appreciation of Mrs. Williamson will be published.

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State Civic League in Maryland.—There are twenty-seven philanthropic and charitable organizations in Maryland, all active in their own spheres but none of them held together by one organization. At a meeting in the Federated Charities Building in Baltimore on July 1, an outline for a State Civic League was submitted by Dr. Arthur P. Herring, secretary of the State Lunacy Commission. The purpose of the proposed organization is to assist the various societies in accomplishing their work when it is necessary to arouse public interest. The new organization will stand ready to help but not to intrude. The tentative plans are to have in each county a local society or unit and a local society in Baltimore. These local branches are to be kept in close touch with the state headquarters, which will keep informed on all of the important work of the county branches as well as of the different societies. To quote from the outline of the association read at the first meeting: "We are to have on call at a minute's notice minutemen in every county who will rally for the support of any movement endorsed by the state league. As a result of the conference, the chairman, Douglas M. Wylie of the Maryland Child Labor Committee, was instructed to appoint a committee of five to draught a plan for the new organization. The meeting will be called in September and representatives from every city and county society are invited.

Texas Tuberculosis Hospital.—The first municipal tuberculosis hospital in Texas will soon be built in Denison. Through the efforts of the Board of Trade of that city a special election for the purpose of levying a tuberculosis tax for the next two years was successful in securing the hospital.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

TAMALPAIS CENTER FOR COMMUNITY LIFE

An association has been formed in Marin county, just across the bay from San Francisco, which promises to mean a great deal in the interest of community life. It is called Tamalpais Center and the plan is that from this center shall radiate the community social life, organized, in turn, into outdoor sports, playground, literary clubs, manual training, domestic science, natural history, and the arts. Provision will also be made for a lyceum which will provide a platform for the expression of honest thought.

Tamalpais Center is a result of the interest and gifts of William Kent of Chicago, the donor of Muir Woods for a national park, and his mother, Mrs. A. E. Kent. Twenty-nine acres of land, surrounded by mountain, forest and sea, eminently suited for the work, were presented to the community on May day, 1909. Over 4,000 enthusiastic citizens gathered to show their appreciation of the gift and to organize for future development. At this fête the Marin Stadium Association, which is part of the general plan, provided for the games and races. The whole undertaking is an admirable attempt to solve the problem of village life. There are many towns around that side of the bay within easy reach of Tamalpais Center, which will provide for the fellowship and co-operation of a growing, complex population.

Ernest Bradley, associate rector of Trinity Church, San Francisco, has been asked to be the executive head of the institution. He is at present staying at Chicago Commons Social Settlement and taking the course in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. The fact that Mr. Bradley is connected with the Protestant Episcopal Church will have no bearing on his new position, however. The work will be absolutely without

caste, creed, or politics, except as these things have to do with the broadest outlook on life, and the building up of healthy minds and bodies. It is a center where every man can work for the good of all. The grounds are at present being put into shape for the various games and a building erected for theatricals, clubs and classes. It is expected that the formal opening of the center will be on September 9 which is "admission day" for California. Dr. Jenkin Lloyd Jones of Chicago, who has been invited to participate in the events of the opening, will be the guest of honor.

NEW YORK CITY'S MODEL MILK COMPANY

To provide the equipment for increasing the number of infants' milk depots in New York city as well as to demonstrate the commercial feasibility of producing clean milk at a reasonable price under established conditions, the New York Milk Committee is organizing a model milk company which will purchase a creamery in the country and control its own milk at the source of supply by co-operating with the farmers of the neighborhood. All cleansing and sterilizing of vessels will be taken out of the farmers' hands and performed at the creamery. Each morning and evening when the farmer comes with his milk he will receive an absolutely clean utensil. By these and other simple sanitary precautions which have been satisfactorily demonstrated by Dr. Charles E. North of the milk committee, it is believed that milk containing less than 10,000 bacteria per c. c. can be produced by the ordinary farmer with little or no change from established conditions. One advance in price will be given for the observance of sanitary precautions, and another advance for the tuberculin testing of cows. This increase is felt by the milk commit-

tee to be necessary in securing these needed reforms.

Milk will be sold raw and pasteurized according to the prescription of physicians or the order of customers through the seven milk depots of the New York Milk Committee. This, it is believed, is a natural and automatic way of settling the problem of the nutritional value of pasteurized and raw milk. Physicians and nurses will be connected with the milk depots to carry on educational work among the mothers using the milk. These will be provided and paid by contribution, and will not be made a charge against the milk company which will be conducted on a business basis. In a similar way relief will not be provided by the milk company but by outside agencies to whom bills will be sent regularly. Thus the company is not a philanthropy but a business organization co-operating with philanthropic societies. One of the main features of the company is educational. In this it will co-operate with the New York Milk Committee which will act as its publicity agent.

The creamery with its group of farmers comprising a model unit for milk production capable of indefinite expansion, will be used as an experiment station to demonstrate on the one hand, the efficiency of the sanitary operations adopted, including the suppression of tuberculosis and on the other, the cost of these operations including their influence on the price paid to the farmer and the price paid by the consumer. In this way practical methods will be pointed out to milk dealers and farmers whereby milk, satisfactory to doctors and health authorities can be produced under ordinary conditions and sold at prices which consumers can pay, and milk consumers will receive a lesson in economics which will teach them what they can reasonably expect in milk reform and to what extent purity in milk is dependent upon price.

A careful estimate approved by such men as Stephen Francisco, president of the National Certified Milk Producers' Association, and Loton Horton, president of the National Milk Dealers' Association, shows that the company can be

organized and put on a paying basis with a capital of \$25,000. All dividends above six per cent will go to reduce the price of milk and to accumulate a moderate reserve. Of the total amount of capital \$9,000 has already been raised.

SOCIAL SERVICE AT THE NORTHFIELD CONFERENCE

For twenty-four years the Students' Department of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association has held at Northfield, Mass., at the close of the college year, a conference for college and preparatory school men. From very small beginnings, this conference has grown to be the largest convention of college men. It has been duplicated, under the same auspices, in other parts of the country, so that today practically all of the student field of the United States and Canada has similar opportunities to discuss the religious problems of college life. The Northfield conference, the oldest of them all, has by far the largest attendance each year. From 700 to 1,000 delegates, representing a territory including Pennsylvania, New York, the New England States and Eastern Canada are present.

The conference, which meets in the hilly country of the upper Connecticut Valley, is grouped by delegations in the various halls of the Northfield Seminary and in tents. The mornings and evenings are devoted to platform meetings and sectional conferences on religious work. The afternoon is free and the facilities for sport and intercollegiate competition are well utilized.

During the last few years the social service feature has been entering more and more strongly into the dominant religious interest. The students are organized by sections into various groups for Bible study and for mission study. Under the head of home mission study, Roswell T. Bates of the Spring Street Settlement, New York, has for the past few years conducted a course in city problems which has proven attractive. It is now the largest of all the sectional meetings at Northfield. This year this section was led by Mr. Bates and Gilbert Beaver, who called to their assist-

ance, each for some one special section, the Rev. O. G. Cocks, who told of the Sea and Land Mission Church, New York city, and William Jay Schieffelin, president of the Citizens' Union, New York city, who told of the reorganized committee and its investigation and publication of the records of candidates for office. This section was addressed by George Wharton Pepper of Philadelphia, and by Roy Smith Wallace, of New York, who spoke on Some of the Environmental Causes of Poverty. Each of the addresses was followed by discussion and the numerous and intelligent questions asked gave evidence of the interest college men are taking in the social problems of the day.

This year another section called Industrial Organization was introduced under the leadership of F. M. Harris. The speakers and their subjects were: Roger H. Williams, treasurer of the Crane Company, Bridgeport, Conn., The Employer; Warren H. Wilson of the Department of Labor of the Presbyterian Church, The Bread Winner; J. C. Stewart, professor of economics at Lehigh, The History of Labor; Roy Smith Wallace, Industrial Accidents, and C. R. Towson, of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association, Industrial Department, The Organization of the Industrial World. This section was also one of the largest and most interesting of the conference.

Another manifestation of the increasing interest in social things from the religious point of view is the growing popularity of one of the sections which studies a course prepared by Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University, on the Social Significance of the Teachings of Jesus. This course drew the largest number of students of the Bible study courses. The address of the Rev. Henry Sloane Coffin, at one of the general platform meetings, on the Social Message of Christianity was interesting to every social worker. The addresses of Mr. Pepper and Mr. Schieffelin were also socially important.

No finer recruiting ground for active and able workers in social fields can be found than these Northfield conferences

with their large number of earnest college men keen to get a new and larger outlook on their life work. The recent and growing tendency manifested in all the religious field toward utilizing religious inspiration for the solving of our social problems is increasingly marked at Northfield.

CHARITY MEETINGS HELD IN PARIS IN JUNE

On June 21, 22 and 23, seven meetings of interest to charity workers everywhere were held in Paris. The organizations which united in this conference were the International Society for the Study of Questions of Relief, the International Committee on the Congress of Public and Private Relief, the Committee of the National Society of Charity in France, and the International Bureau for Information Relating to Relief of Aliens. These meetings called together representatives from nearly all the countries of Europe. Charles R. Henderson of the international committee from the United States was present. His contribution has already been published in the *Revue Philanthropique*.

The chief business of the international committee was to consider and approve the admirable plans for the Copenhagen congress of August, 1910, as presented by A. de Krieger, chief of the Department of Charity in the Ministry of the Interior of Denmark. These plans give important suggestions for the International Prison Congress which will occur later at Washington, probably in September. The subjects to be discussed at Copenhagen are: Relief of the sick in rural communities; relief of aliens and a study of the foundations of international agreements; the role of woman in relief work; relief for widows with young children. The participants in the congress may use, in the papers they send and in speeches, either English, German, French or Danish. Interpreters will give the essence of each speech. Any person interested may become a member of the congress by paying twenty francs (four dollars). This payment will entitle the member to take part in the congress, to send written reports on the subjects

named, and to receive the volumes of printed proceedings which will be very valuable.

The paper of Dr. Szana on the Hungarian state system of care of children was very strong. Its essential principle was that the state assumes direct responsibility for every child in physical or moral peril and adapts its treatment to individual needs. The idea of scientific medical examination in the beginning of treatment was emphasized.

A banquet in the fine Salle Hoche, with music by one of the best military bands in France, closed the sessions. M. Pichon, French minister of foreign affairs, presided. M. Stey, in his toast, laid stress on the idea that charity must strive to secure exact, precise, scientific methods, making careful use of all known facts and permitting freedom of experiment. M. Loubet, former president of France, spoke of the universal interest shown by the chiefs of states in the subject of charity. M. Krieger, of Copenhagen, offered the hospitality of Denmark to the congress of 1910. Senator Strauss, whose indefatigable labors in the French Parliament and in the charities of Paris, have given him deserved fame, gave a greeting to the strangers present. M. Van Overbergh made a brief résumé of his report which will be the center of attention at the coming congress. M. Rivière claimed a place of honor for private charity by the side of public relief. The venerable minister of state of Belgium, M. Le Jenne, interested the audience with his charming eulogy of French charity. M. Pichon, the chairman, spoke last and praised the work of the international society.

One of the events of the week was the presentation of a medal, designed by the brilliant artist Marlon, to each of the former presidents of the International Society for the Study of Questions of Relief, this being the twentieth anniversary of the society's foundation.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE FRENCH SOCIETY OF PRISONS

On June 28 the French General Society of Prisons held its annual meetings at Paris. Eminent lawyers discussed sus-

pended sentence and the limits of powers of juries. The papers will be published in the *Revue Pénitentiaire*. In this prison society, if one can judge from this meeting, the prison directors are conspicuous by their absence; the lawyers and professors of criminal law do the talking. M. Grimanelli, former director of the prison administration, was a notable exception. In this country the American Prison Association is made up in a very different way. A comparison shows an unprejudiced observer that a friendly conference of persons representing all points of view would be most fruitful. Lawyers seldom have a chance to know what the law actually does with a prisoner in the prison and afterwards, while prison men have little time to study the historical development of the legal institutions of the world and the dangers of rash changes in law and of arbitrary administration. The recent Chicago conference on criminology and penal law marks an advance, and it will aid materially in the work of the American Prison Association and the congress of 1910. At the banquet the committee in charge made Charles R. Henderson, the American commissioner, the guest of honor.

NATIONAL WOMAN SUFFRAGE CONVENTION

The forty-first annual convention of the National American Woman Suffrage Association met in Seattle, Washington, July 1 to 8. Twenty-nine states were represented by delegates.

Three circumstances lent unusual importance to the occasion. Amendments to the state constitutions of Washington, Oregon and South Dakota conferring the franchise upon women have been submitted to the voters by their respective legislatures to be voted upon in 1910. The subject is, therefore, of particular interest to men and women in the Northwest at this time.

The convention voted to remove the headquarters of the association to New York city where it will occupy offices under the same roof with the New York State Woman Suffrage Association and the College Equal Suffrage League. Readers of THE SURVEY, acquainted with

the benefits arising from the United Charities Building, can estimate the enhanced efficiency which will come from this geographical change.

Finally, Mrs. Frances Squire Potter, professor of English in the University of Minnesota, and her friend, Miss Peck, associate professor in the same department, go to New York as general secretary and office secretary respectively of the National Association. Mrs. Potter succeeds Miss Kate Gordon of New Orleans, who has filled the office of secretary for eight years. Miss Gordon is president of the state association of Louisiana, and retires in order to devote herself to the work in that state.

Miss Alice Stone Blackwell, editor of the *Woman's Journal*, retires from the office of recording secretary which she has filled for a quarter of a century, and is succeeded by Mrs. Ella S. Stewart, president of the Illinois Political Equality Association.

The officers for the coming year are:

President, Miss Anna Howard Shaw, Moylan, Pa.; vice-presidents, Mrs. Rachel Foster Avery, Swarthmore, Pa., and Mrs. Florence Kelley, New York; general secretary, Mrs. Frances Squire Potter; recording secretary, Mrs. Ella S. Stewart, Chicago; treasurer, Mrs. Harriet T. Upton, Warren, Ohio; auditors, Miss Laura Clay, Lexington, Ky., and Miss Alice Stone Blackwell, Boston, Mass.

THE SALARY LOAN BUSINESS IN PITTSBURGH

The salary loan business of Pittsburgh has been investigated and T. J. Gillespie, the chairman of the investigating committee, has records of over fifty transactions confirming the charges of exorbitancy brought out in the study made by Clarence W. Wassam.¹

The committee found one case of a widow living near Pittsburgh who is obliged to pay \$17 on a loan of \$50 for four months. Another instance is told of the wife of a railroad brakeman who began borrowing money from these companies two years ago. She could not continue the payments and was induced

to take out another loan from which she received a small amount of cash. The net results of her two years' dealing was that she paid out \$561 for the use of \$317.

The Pittsburgh investigators found that the loan companies refuse to give out the names of the real owners of their businesses. Several of the Pittsburgh companies are said to work together in one syndicate.

At the meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, held in June, a preliminary report was submitted. The committee is continuing its investigation and will report more at length at a later meeting.

A SETTLEMENT ON THREE HUNDRED A YEAR

Neighborhood House, located in the heart of the industrial district of Grand Rapids, Mich., which is bounded by railroad yards and car shops, furnishes an example of what a settlement may do with very little money.

A year ago local social workers saw the need of counteracting the influence exercised on the boys and young men of the district by saloons and other undesirable places. To offer them a substitute the settlement was planned, and Miss Louise Peirce solicited money to rent and furnish a building. She raised \$200 which subsequently grew to \$302. In addition business houses contributed furniture, dishes and games. A sporting goods firm gave boxing gloves and gymnasium apparatus.

A house on Tenth avenue, a block from the G. R. & I. car shops, was secured at a monthly rental of eight dollars. It was opened in August and its success was immediate. Two of the seven rooms were fitted up as smoking and game rooms. The kitchen became the gymnasium and its limited size in no way affected its popularity. It was especially convenient for parties, as the oil stove afforded a ready means to prepare luncheon. The front room downstairs became the girls' property and a large room upstairs was converted into a nursery garden, kindergarten and day nursery, in the conduct of which students in

¹ The Salary Loan Business in New York City by Clarence W. Wassam. Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York. In paper covers, price postpaid 75 cents.

the Grand Rapids Kindergarten got practical experience. Two smaller rooms on the second floor were used in the evening as play rooms for the little folk. One of these was the day sewing room as well.

Volunteers were plenty from the start and after a while several earnest workers were regular in attendance. Aside from fitting up the house and moving the kindergarten equipment furnished by the Bissell House, the other settlement in the city, there was little expense. Rent, fuel, and janitor service; a football and several indoor baseballs, took the larger portion of the money originally contributed, but when the work was actively started, more than \$125 was left in the treasury. Representative citizens particularly fitted for the positions were chosen as a governing board.

The boys and young men of the neighborhood had always been interested in athletics, and successful baseball and football teams were organized. When the building was first opened the young men on a few occasions held objectionable parties, but for several months no unpleasantness of this nature has been experienced. Chief of Police Carr recently said that since the opening of the settlement hardly a complaint had been received from the district in which the settlement is situated.

It was found necessary to organize clubs among the young men, but an effort was made to keep anything like a "gang" spirit from manifesting itself, and in this the workers believe they have been fairly successful.

Instruction in sewing is given the young women once a week. A musical evening is a regular weekly feature. On Friday evening dancing is allowed until 10 o'clock. A Neighborhood Improvement Association will take the place of the women's club which was organized at first, and which for various reasons was not successful.

The Ryerson Public Library furnishes books each week for distribution at the settlement, and subscriptions to several of the current magazines have been donated. The heaviest items of expense are for fuel and janitor service. The latter

is supplied by the young men of the neighborhood. It is believed that \$350 will cover the entire yearly cost of the settlement which is low as there are no resident workers. The table of expenditure follows:

Rent, \$80; fuel, coal, \$29.68; wood, \$4.50; oil, \$4.50; janitor service, winter, \$12 a month, \$60; summer, \$8 a month, \$40; baseball suits and equipment, \$36; decorating and repairs, \$30; furniture, \$15 (?) incidentals, \$10; total, \$308.68.

The growth of the settlement has necessitated its removal to a larger building on Ninth avenue.

EMILY E. WILLIAMSON

FRANCIS A. FOY

Emily E. Williamson, foremost woman of New Jersey, passed away on Monday morning, July 12, at her home in Elizabeth, N. J. For a generation she had been identified with every form of charitable endeavor, and for the last decade and a half of her life was the acknowledged leader in all public work bearing on the philanthropies of the state. Destitution in any form always gripped hard upon her sympathies and she gave liberally of herself and her means to relieve it, for hers was a hand "open as day for melting charity."

Of her personal benefactions to those who crossed her pathway and needed immediate help no story can be told, for of these she made no accounting, not even to herself; but that they were many and constituted a large drain on her material resources is the feeling of those who are now charged with the duty of casting up her accounts with the world. It is as a public benefactor, however, that Mrs. Williamson is best known, and in this respect her activities are deeply cut into the history of the state. If the life-work of another woman, Dorothy Linde Dix, for the rescue of the poor and insane from cruel neglect, found expression in the remedial legislation of the middle portion of the nineteenth century, so also did this woman's work have much to do with the great reforms and constructive policies of New Jersey which marked

the ending of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth. For many years her voice had been that of one crying in the wilderness. The middle nineties, however, witnessed the triumph of the first great cause in which she had enlisted, the establishment of a state reformatory. About this time Mrs. Williamson began to receive the assistance of Hugh F. Fox, whose stalwart support became an important factor in all her subsequent work. Together they devised a plan for removing the dependent children of the state from the almshouses and placing them in private families; and after appointment by two successive governors as commissioners to investigate and report on the merits of such a system, they rendered reports so exhaustive and convincing, that the plan was finally adopted by the state and took the form of the New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians.

The State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association, of which Mrs. Williamson was a founder in the year 1885, and of which she was at all times the informing and inspiring spirit, took a new lease of life with the creation of the State Board of Children's Guardians, when these two bodies began to occupy the same suite of offices in Jersey City. Being an executive officer in both organizations the alliance proved to be a great advantage in Mrs. Williamson's work. From these headquarters, in the year 1902, the first numbers of the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections* were issued, and the project of an annual State Conference of Charities and Corrections was launched. Mrs. Williamson herself became the president of the first conference and remained afterwards its constant and most active supporter. As a conference leader she was always an inspiring figure and never failed to give a practical turn to any discussion into which she entered.

Mrs. Williamson was also identified, from its beginning, with the management and editorial work of the *Review* and at the time of her death was its editor-in-chief. Under her guidance and leadership the State Charities Aid and Prison Association, the State Conference of Charities and Corrections and the *New*

Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections, all acting harmoniously upon the great problems of state care and social reform, were able to exercise an influence greater than that of any lobby that ever attacked the citadel of legislative power. And it was this influence, supplemented by her personal work with citizens of prominence, with governors and with legislative committees, that was chiefly instrumental in bringing about such important reforms as the abolition of the sheriff's fee system and of factory labor by children under fourteen years of age, and which led to the establishment of probation and juvenile courts, of tenement-house reform and of state supervision of charities and corrections.

The personal element in her public work was unique and striking. Says a newspaper writer: "It is a remarkable fact that she was always welcomed by the governor and the Legislature and her views were listened to with attention and great respect; and it was always claimed that this was due to her spirit of justice and her ability to look on both sides of a question." Small wonder that her funeral was the occasion of a representative gathering of those who shared her interest in the common-weal and that her obsequies were honored by the presence of three ex-governors of the state, one of whom assumed entire charge of the arrangements.

Of the public work performed by Mrs. Williamson in her visits to institutions, particularly of almshouses and county jails, there is not room here to give an adequate account, but suffice it to say that frequent visits had made her familiar with and deeply concerned about them, and that she had been able to improve many conditions. With her the discharged prisoner was also a subject of vital and practical interest. Her work as probation officer of Union county for the past six years was marked by the greatest success, especially with her juvenile charges.

Mrs. Williamson was a member of the board of managers, and secretary, of the Institution for the Feeble Minded at Vineland. She was on the executive committee of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, and was

actively identified with the work of the American Prison Association. A few years back she was appointed by President Roosevelt to attend the Congress of the International Prison Association at Budapest in Hungary. Other work she did and other offices held, this remarkable woman, which cannot be so much as catalogued here. She is gone; her star has ceased to shine, but it has not fallen,—it has vanished in the sky.

MISSOURI'S NINE-HOUR WOMEN'S BILL

ALTHEA SOMERVILLE

St. Louis

One of the first bills to be submitted to the Missouri General Assembly when it convened in January was that of the Women's Trade Union League, asking for a fifty-four hour week for women employed in manufacturing and mercantile establishments, laundries and restaurants, and the elimination of night work between the hours of 10 P. M. and 5 A. M. After having been buffeted about between the two houses and fought vigorously by the strong Manufacturers' Association this bill, with four amendments, has finally passed and it has been signed by the governor. The amendments are: Businesses employing three people or less are exempt; towns of 5,000 and less are exempt; the months of November and December are exempt; and waitresses are permitted to work any time provided they only work nine hours in the twenty-four.

The new Illinois law will be operative in every "mechanical establishment or factory or laundry" and limits the employment of women to ten hours a day every month in the year; but there is no ruling against night work. Massachusetts has a fifty-six hour week with no work between 10 P. M. and 6 A. M.; and the month of January is exempt; New Jersey with fifty-five hours and Wisconsin with forty-eight hours, though permitting contracts for overtime, realize John R. Commons's statements that "permanent industrial progress cannot be built upon the physical exhaustion of women" and that "states with shorter

work days actually manufacture their products at a lower cost than states with longer work days."

The Missouri bill was framed by the Women's Trade Union League, an organization which, though barely one year old, is already coming to be recognized as a power, with its membership of almost 2,000 of the most intelligent of Missouri's working women. The committee for social legislation, with several paid lobbyists in constant attendance and with unlimited expense accounts backed the bill and the State Federation of Labor kept a splendid watch over it, advising action at critical moments.

Soon the Manufacturers' Association began to realize that there was danger of the measure's going through. From the president's office in St. Louis a letter was sent out to about 500 manufacturers in the state, telling them to fight the bill which was against the freedom of the individual and advising them to write to their senators and representatives to vote against the measure. The letter very cleverly misstated the bill. Being informed of all this, the Women's Trade Union League sent out in the very next mail to the same manufacturers a letter setting forth the arguments in favor of the bill, and telling of the garbled statement contained in the Manufacturers' Association's letter. Further letters asking for support were sent by the advocates of the bill to all senators and representatives and to every local union and individual who might help.

And so it went, until finally the climax was capped by the governor's signing the wrong bill—one that did not contain all the final amendments. This would of course have made no difference, for the right bill could have become a law without signature if the month for signatures had elapsed without discovery of this humorous last slip. But the properly engrossed bill was found and duly signed. Additional cause for rejoicing rests in the fact that of all the bills introduced during this present Legislature only seven per cent passed.

The St. Louis press has taken remarkably little notice of the fight for the women's hours bill. Realizing that much of the success of this law depends upon its being known by the working people,

many thousand circulars are now being printed, which will be distributed in the factories, department stores, laundries and restaurants. Moreover, an announcement of the law is being made wherever suitable. In addition to the state factory inspections made partly in order to see if the provisions of this law are enforced, a careful watch will be kept by the unions and various interested organizations and individuals who believe strongly in a resolution recently passed by the American Association for Labor Legislation, "That the fundamental purpose of labor legislation is the conservation of the human resources of the nation."

NEGLECTED NEIGHBORS

Reviewed by CHARLES B. BALL

The student of American housing will find Mr. Weller's work¹ a welcome and noteworthy contribution to the literature of the slum, as well as an important addition to the shelf of books and pamphlets relating to housing which have been issued during the last ten years. Until about 1900 there was a general feeling that housing problems of seriousness did not exist outside the congested metropolis. The observations made of the oppressive conditions in New York were rarely paralleled elsewhere. The single fact of the absence of alleys at once differentiated Manhattan from the large number of cities in which at least partial light and air were provided at the rear of the lots. The towering tenements on the narrow New York streets, and the consequent density of the population in many blocks aggravated and emphasized many evils, which in much less degree were prevalent elsewhere. Indeed, it cannot be doubted that some thoughtful persons were led to overlook bad housing in their own cities, because of the absence of anything at home which could be compared with the twenty-family tenement house of New York.

The reports of investigations made in

¹Neglected Neighbors. Stories of life in the alleys, tenements and shanties of the national capital, by Charles Frederick Weller; with letter of introduction by President Theodore Roosevelt. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1909. Pp. 342. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

Chicago, Philadelphia, Cleveland, St. Louis and other cities, now supplemented by this exhaustive record of deplorable conditions in the capital city, form a conclusive chain of proof that all the American cities need extensive study of their housing conditions. Ample evidence is now at hand that the lesser evils of unhealthful dwellings, such as disrepair and unsanitary conditions are beginning everywhere to receive due consideration.

These reports inevitably force the conclusion that we must look on New York, relative to its housing, as atypical rather than typical. It does not follow, although there can be found in other cities certain conditions which were common in New York fifty years ago, that bad housing will progress in those cities to the acute stages now manifest in New York.

The point of view of the author that "it is not with bricks, wood and mathematical measurements that we have to deal so much as with human beings and their standards of life," has been always in mind in his construction of this "human document." Such intentional departure from the accepted standards of comparison makes the book of less permanent value than it would have if expressed in units commensurable with those used in works which have preceded it, and would in less able hands, have resulted in failure. The intense earnestness of the author and his first hand knowledge of the facts which he so vividly depicts have resulted in a volume to enlist the interest and quicken the heart blood of every lover of human kind.

A city plan in which parallel streets are located at too great distances apart, thus creating too large blocks, invites, after a time, unsuitable subdivisions of these ungainly and unprofitable areas. In Philadelphia, such spaces have been utilized by the well known system of blind courts, entering from a principal street, their sides lined with tenement houses, and with no outlet. The more common method in Washington, by reason of the presence, for many years past, of narrow alleys extending into blocks and in frequent examples, crossing from street to street, has been to construct

small interior groups of houses in the middle of the blocks facing away from the outside frontages. The inhabitants of these miniature slums have no connection whatever with those of the streets and avenues, so that Mr. Weller can truthfully say: "Resourceful people live for many years in attractive residences on the avenues, without knowing or affecting in the slightest degree, the life of the alley hovels just behind them." "The basic evil is the alley's ground plan, the peculiar arrangement whereby a little community is walled off and shut off from the common influence of the city's general life." This statement is applicable (though perhaps not so fully) to the shut-in-courts of Philadelphia, or (possibly in still less degree) to the long, straight alleys of Chicago, on which nearly 13,000 rear houses are located.

From such a beginning the word-artist paints for his readers, picture after picture of alley life, showing its "latent danger," its undeveloped "unmoral" standards, whose very expansion constitutes a process of deterioration. The author is fearless in prescribing a cure. "No remedy can be adequate for the alley slums which does not propose the entire elimination of residential alleys, root and branch." This will come about most often by extending the wider alleys through to the enclosing streets. Perhaps "a few of the worst and largest alleys [interior blocks] might well be transformed into public playgrounds, which would make these squares into centers for the upbuilding, instead of the degradation of citizenship."

Part II.—devoted to the tenements, states at the outset the close analogy between the alley life and that of the tenement house, attributing to the same causes, the bad results observed. "From both tenement and alley, the influences of outside life are shut away and the crowded denizens of either community are encouraged to set up for themselves such local moral standards as are determined by those people among them who are lowest, but most vigorous." In "National Flats," "Douglas Flats," "Tomcat Flats," and "The Castle" are described large "human ant-hills" in which "seclusion, sacred privacy and

restful quiet" are "totally unknown," but the physical housing evils of narrow air shafts, unlighted halls, dark, unventilated and crowded rooms, filth and bad repair are all too common. The pages devoted to the small tenements which abound in Washington show by words and illustrations the crystallization of the same bad conditions in brick and stone. We are moreover informed of the constant and rapid increase in numbers of these minor tenements.

Passing to the consideration of the shacks and shanties, "picturesque but degrading," many typical examples are noted, and especially the tendency of frame dwellings abused by disorderly tenants and neglected by rapacious owners, to fall into the class of hovels "unfit for human habitation." True to the purpose of his declaration to portray human interest, Mr. Weller delineates the "submerged lives" of the inhabitants of "Chinch Row" (near Dupont circle), "Jonah Row," "Pipe Town," "Boston" and "Factory Hill."

Having made this record, whether it be counted diagnosis or indictment, the book sets forth the standards to be attained in applying general remedies. "By law and by public opinion, tenants and landlords should both be made to understand that the national capital will not allow its citizenship to sink below certain fundamental, prescribed standards." "Nothing less than ideal conditions and ideal methods should be deemed appropriate for the national capital."

Following important chapters on the Need for Statesmanship and For a Larger Civic Life, the eight essential features of "town planning," as exemplified in German cities, are discussed in detail. Of these fundamentals, at least the first or "zone" system of control of building operations is unknown in American cities, and its application would result in far-reaching improvement in housing conditions.

We may lay aside the book, agreeing that the author has "made good" his purpose "to report such experiences with degrading, and also with constructive social forces as may be of value to those who are interested in the 'Neglected Neighbors' of any community."

A "PEOPLE'S SUNDAY EVENING"

LIVY S. RICHARD

EDITOR OF THE ROCHESTER, N. Y., EVENING TIMES

A plan, with some new features, to carry the message of the church to the large number of city dwellers who do not attend church and who are more or less out of touch and sympathy with the spirit and methods of the average church, was tried experimentally last winter in Rochester, N. Y. Its inception and workings make an interesting story.

The author of the plan and the leader in its execution was Rev. Paul Moore Strayer, pastor of the Third Presbyterian Church. Mr. Strayer's church is located on East avenue, Rochester's show residence street, equaled by few in the world in point of beauty and wealth of lawns and homes. The church's congregation is drawn from well-to-do homes. Many of its pew holders are wealthy. By location and in respect of the circumstances of its congregation, it carries to outsiders unacquainted with its spirit the impression of an aristocracy, in which the man in a cheap suit or the woman in a calico gown might not feel at home.

Mr. Strayer was not satisfied, although in the six years of his pastorate he had seen this congregation develop from a small number and stiff traditions into one of the largest and most neighborly in Rochester, with sittings at a premium and a cash balance at the end of the year notwithstanding that it supports the best paid quartette in the city, an assistant minister, one home and one foreign missionary and a wide diversity of auxiliary activities, and was proving a great community force.

Mr. Strayer had been and still is the fraternal delegate of the Rochester Ministerial Association in the central council of the trades unions of Rochester. He had found among the representatives of the labor organizations and in their rank and file as well, not only marked indifference but actual hostility to the church. This feeling was not limited to the socialists; it pervaded great groups who claimed no fellowship in the socialistic

propaganda. Almost before the doors of the downtown churches thousands of wage-earners every Sunday evening paraded aimlessly, and few entered. In short, in Rochester, mostly populated by persons from farms and villages, where church attendance has been and remains a habit, was being repeated the experience of larger and more complex cities—the church and the masses were separating and the latter were coming to look upon the former as mainly a social convenience of the well-to-do.

If these people would not come to the churches to hear their message and learn for themselves its real spirit, Mr. Strayer thought it would be worth while to see if the message could not be taken to them in a way to invite and command a hearing. He consulted with many both in the ministry and in the labor movement, and the outcome was a series of twenty meetings in the largest theater in Rochester, called the People's Sunday Evening, but commonly abbreviated into the P. S. E. With him in the planning and associated with him in the ministry were Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch of the Rochester Theological Seminary, author of *Christianity and the Social Crisis*, and Rev. Dr. Henry H. Stebbins, a singularly diligent leader in good works, and known as Rochester's social missionary-at-large. These selected to counsel with and assist them a committee of fourteen, striking in the diversity of interests represented, and equally notable for the fact that not once did these diverse interests clash or unanimity fail to follow frank discussion of plans.

The chairman of this committee had been a college professor and president but is now a successful manufacturer. The vice-chairman is the business agent of a labor union. The secretary is the editor of a labor journal. The treasurer is the general manager of one of Rochester's largest industries. Two of the committeemen are leading physicians; one is

president and the other was until recently secretary of the Chamber of Commerce; one is president of the central labor organization, representing 13,000 unionized wage-earners; one, a paper jobber, is also the most active civic worker in the city; one is a small merchant and one is the editor of one of the daily newspapers.

Mr. Strayer's church freed him for these twenty meetings and loaned its quartette. Friends in his congregation voluntarily contributed nearly one-third of the expense. The meetings cost, in all, a little less than \$175 apiece, for rental of theater; advertising, which followed theatrical precedents; programs, music, and one other item, to be referred to later. Before a meeting was held, those not known to be contributors to any church were solicited for funds until there was in hand enough to finance the series, provided the theater audiences should contribute an average of forty dollars an evening. The audiences did a little better than this, and the great bulk of their offerings was in pennies—often the collection produced as many as 1,300 coins. The only salaried person connected with the series, aside from the orchestra members, who were included in the theater rental, was a secretary, who charged for only half her time, although she gave it all.

The meetings were unconventional. The orchestra played for half an hour before the curtain rose. Ministers, members of the committee and guests occupied the front of the stage, while behind them was massed a chorus choir and to one side were a piano and the quartette. There was always a reading from the Bible, sometimes in unison, the selections being printed on the program, as were the words of the songs. There was always prayer, ending in a united voicing of the Lord's Prayer. Women removed their hats. The audience applauded, as in a theater. Frequently slips were passed inviting the audience to suggest songs and topics. In every way the endeavor was made to have the audience feel a sense of personal participation in the meetings.

The subjects treated during the twenty

meetings covered a wide range. For illustration, one night was given over to a discussion of the public health of the city. Physicians told of the fight on tuberculosis and other diseases and the health officer threw upon a screen pictures of local bad tenement conditions, accompanying them with timely warnings. The problem of unemployment occupied one evening, the speakers being an unemployed man who told of his search for work, a large employer who told how difficult it was to provide work in a time of business depression, and a speaker who explained in detail just what the organizations of betterment in Rochester were doing to cope with destitution. A debate on what to do with the saloon, between the attorney of the German-American alliance, who advocated more stringent regulation, and former Governor Glenn of North Carolina, who recommended prohibition; two evenings of discussion upon phases of socialism, two evenings given over to explanations of the labor movement, one of them addressed by Raymond Robins of Chicago, who said that in all his experience in social work he had never found a forum just like the P. S. E., with religion so directly brought into practical touch with the daily concerns of men and women; two evenings to phases of school work, with pictures; and, finally, two evenings of earnest, heart-to-heart talk about the church's place and work in society, with urging to outsiders to get in and push—thus the experiment went through a list of vital subjects of intimate concern, always with plentiful open discussion or questions from the floor, and pointed moral-drawing by one of the ministers, dealing with the religious aspects.

One of the first things discovered was that faith without works did not impress a congregation of non churchgoers. And so an employment bureau was opened. This consisted of an office in which the man seeking work could leave his name, address, claims and references. Where possible the claims and references were investigated. Employers were asked to draw on these waiting lists and some were persuaded as a social service to

make temporary work for especially needy applicants. No charge was made by the bureau. When knowledge of positions open was received, word was at once sent to registered applicants. No guarantee of fitness was given but as far as possible the worthy and fit were preferred, and so far as could be all were helped, if with nothing more than a kind word. Just this touch of kindness to dispirited drifters did much to put new heart into them. In all more than 500 applications were registered and more than 100 men were placed at work. This required some paid help additional to the secretary, but the expense was small. Out of this simple plan of a free intelligence office for the unemployed is now growing a movement to federate the charities of Rochester and focus all betterment activities into a central clearing house of information.

The attendance was inspiring and the interest keen from the beginning. The smallest audience on the stormiest night was larger twice over than the average Sunday evening audience in any church of equal capacity in the city; and on most occasions people by hundreds were turned away. No way was found to measure accurately the proportion of non-churchgoers, but careful estimate places it at eighty per cent. The total attendance exceeded 30,000; the number of separate persons ministered to is reckoned at 10,000. Inspired by this example, a number of churches put new interest into their evening services and gained in attendance. So far as known, the attendance in no church was depleted. The Ministerial Association, at first undecided, at length endorsed the P. S. E. plan with emphasis and sent to the final meeting a representative on its behalf to give greeting and testimony and to invite non-churchgoers in the audience to connect themselves with any church most convenient to them, an invitation since accepted in a number of instances.

In some respects the most hopeful thing about this series of theater services was the keen interest and pride taken in them by the labor organizations. All were visited and invited by Mr. Strayer, to whom they look as to an apostle; and

many not only sent delegations but also contributions of money, voted unasked out of the union treasury. Instances by scores came under notice of men, formerly sullen toward the church, who were led, by the theater meetings, and by the simple explanations given in them of what true religion stands for, and is, to revise their attitude and promise to give the church a fair trial. A mass of letters to this effect came to the ministers.

One woman wrote: "I have thought it a beautiful sight to see so many refined and cultured people who were willing to give their services to help people in all walks in life. May God's blessing be on all who have taken part in this good work." A working woman wrote: "My sister and I are so sorry that the Sunday evening meetings are drawing to a close. We have enjoyed them greatly and have attended every one. We have decided to join a church." A man for whom the P. S. E. found steady employment wrote: "I know that the theater meetings have been the cause of bringing those within hearing of the Word of God who would not have went had it been in church. I have heard a number of those men say that the meetings done them good. They have awakened a new interest in me, a desire to live better, to lead an upright, Christian life."

Not less marked was the socializing influence of bringing together those ordinarily out of touch, a fact well indicated in the testimony of the members of the advisory committee. After the meetings had ceased and their effect had been carefully weighed, each member of the committee was asked to record his judgment. One of the labor leaders wrote: "We have demonstrated that men in different walks of life can meet and act in the best interests of the entire community without treading on anyone's toes. Members of our committee have become broader, more enlightened and more charitable in their opinions. It has been demonstrated that a member of the pulpit can be a leader of men in all walks of life." One of the physicians wrote: "At least three marked results have come from these meetings. First, we have

learned much regarding the people we desire to help. Second, the masses are ready to listen to the truth if presented in a manner free from bias and bigotry. Third, the meetings have been the greatest force ever undertaken here to teach non-churchgoers that the church really cares for them, in a practical as well as a spiritual way." The editor wrote: "The effect upon the community has been to cause it to think of religion in a new light, as reaching into the everyday concerns of city life and not simply busying itself with formulas, forms and ceremonies. Rochester this past winter has had no other open forum like the P. S. E., where different groups and strata could and did get acquainted for mutual understanding and service." One of the ministers wrote: "If we could meet and know better the men whose ideas and policies we believe to be contrary to our own selfish interests, I think we should all become more tolerant of each other. None of us is all right and only a few of us are all wrong." One of the large employers, who had not previously understood the temper of the labor movement, said: "I am almost ashamed to confess how much I have learned from these men from the labor unions. The undertaking and its associations have been an eye-opener to me." And as a result largely of this newer understanding, plans are being considered to secure representation of the labor organizations in the Chamber of Commerce, heretofore exclusively an employers' organization.

No clearer summary of the religious side of this innovation can be given than in these words of Professor Rauschenbusch:

We set out to try a radical departure from the ordinary type of church service; not because we thought that type poor, but because we were reaching for a different set of people. We tried to make the program varied, crisp, short, live; to drive in thoughts and impressions by short, sharp hammer-strokes. On the whole we believe our efforts were in the right direction. It was a wholesome innovation and others have learned by our experience. We, too, have learned. We be-

lieved at the beginning that our audiences would want "attractions," features in which pleasant entertainment would be furnished. We found, on the contrary, that our audiences were most profoundly interested in strong, vital, earnest discussions that got at the marrow of the solid questions of life. Especially the workingmen are serious minded; their life has not taught them to stop and laugh. On the whole our respect for the intellectual grasp and the moral earnestness of the people has grown.

Fully half of our meetings were devoted to discussions of social questions, but in discussing these, we did not feel in the least that we were leaving religion and turning to secular things. Great moral perspectives were opened by them and deep religious emotions were stirred by them. To discuss such questions from the point of view of religion, to deal with them as part of the Kingdom of God on earth, is part and parcel of the religion for which the P. S. E. has stood in all it has done.

We also dealt with the moral and religious life of the individual: The religious nature of man, prayer, the care of God for the individual, the religious choice—these have been among the leading subjects, and in addition there have been many short and practical religious talks. In other cities where mass meetings of non-churchgoing people have been attempted, the leaders have only slowly ventured to introduce purely religious subjects, and have regarded it as an achievement when they could ask the people to join in public prayer. We were outspokenly religious from the first, and there has not been the slightest sign of objection or impatience. We believe the people liked it, and that many felt the frozen brooks of their religious nature thawing out with all the joy of springtide.

Beginning frankly as an experiment, the People's Sunday Evening has so signally demonstrated its place and work in the community that it is to be continued and enlarged. The decision to this effect was unanimous among ministers and members of the advisory committee, and it was confirmed with enthusiasm when submitted to the final audience. Moreover, as a means of keeping in touch during the summer, ministerial visits are to go on and there is to be at least one reunion in the form of a popular basket picnic in a park. Later the hope is that a way may be found to cast this usefulness into a form of permanent organization, perhaps a league for social service.

CIVIL SERVICE AND THE CHICAGO LIBRARIANSHIP

The civil service method of appointment in professional service is being put to a new and delicate test in Chicago. Several years ago the entire public library service of the city was placed under the merit law. But the librarian, together with many other officials, retained his office as a hold-over, having risen to it from the position of a page. When the librarianship was vacated this spring the question arose how, under the civil service law, men of experience, caliber and standing sufficient to manage the public library of the second largest city in the United States could be induced to submit to any test by which they could be legally placed upon the eligible list for appointment to this office.

Excepting in New York state no position of such educational exaction and importance had been filled by civil service appointment. And among the library profession a well-nigh unanimous sentiment was known to prevail against this method of appointment in any branch of public library service.

Fortunately, in this case, the situation had previously been still further complicated. Both in and out of the board of directors of the Chicago Public Library, its service was recognized to be far behind that of most other city libraries in proportionate circulation, in branch-library and reading-room facilities, in teaching and encouraging the use of books through the schools, trained children's librarians, story hours and home libraries. The criticism to which it had long been justly subjected on this account among members of the American Library Association, the Chicago Library Club and other intelligently interested groups, at length took constructive form. The Chicago Woman's Club, the Chicago Collegiate Alumnae and another group of influential women succeeded, at their own expense, in introducing the story hour work to the public library service at the public recreation centers. The City Club of Chicago undertook a com-

parative study of library conditions and service in Chicago and other cities. Its report, prepared by a joint committee drawn from the committees on public education and civil service, was published in the bulletin of the club. Its comparisons, however constructively purposed, could not fail to be invidious to the restrictive policy so long pursued by previous public library administrations. It rendered further service in weighing the *pros* and *cons* regarding the civil service method of appointment to the librarianship. Since in this instance there was no other legal way of filling the position, the friends of the library and of the civil service cause were encouraged and strengthened by the conclusion of the committee's report, which was drafted by Prof. George H. Mead of the University of Chicago: "It is certainly conceivable that under the direction of the civil service commission a method of selection of the librarian can be devised which would secure the talent, training and experience which Chicago should demand for the head of her public library."

The press of the city thereupon endorsed and even demanded the right of way, not only for the movement to promote the efficiency and popular extension of the library service, but for the freest interpretation and application of the civil service law in securing the best librarian available.

The opportunity thus presented was promptly seized by the directors of the public library, who authorized the appointment of an advisory commission, to be nominated by the librarian of Congress and the presidents of the University of Chicago and Northwestern University. On the nomination of Herbert Putnam, N. D. C. Hodges, librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, and J. I. Wyer, Jr., of Albany, N. Y., secretary of the American Librarian Association, were appointed as library experts; and on the nomination of Presidents Judson and Harris, Harry

A. Wheeler of the Chicago Association of Commerce, Dean Thomas F. Holgate of Northwestern University and Dean George E. Vincent of the University of Chicago were appointed to represent the local citizenship.

The city civil service commissioner, Elton Lower, at once sought the advice of these gentlemen as to the best method of procedure under the civil service law to fill properly the vacant librarianship. He justly regards the civil service law itself to be on trial as to its adequacy to fill such a position properly. He had recently been encouraged in his confidence that the law would prove to be suitable in this case, because of the notable success scored under the same measure in securing a man of academic standing and scientific attainment for another position imposing technical exactions. His own conviction was that the procedure under the law could be made so fair and flexible that it would be recognized as a personal honor as well as a professional advantage for any librarian to be admitted to the eligible list for this high appointment.

The outcome of this harmonious consultation and co-operation appears first in the following advertisement widely published throughout the United States:

Civil-Service Commission
City of Chicago
Notice of Examination

The Civil-Service Commission of the City of Chicago will hold an examination for librarian, Chicago Public Library, beginning Monday, August 16.

Scope: Special subject and experience.

Local residence will be waived in this examination.

Application should be filed at least ten days before the date set for examination, but may be filed up to twelve o'clock noon of August 14.

Detailed information concerning this examination may be had by calling in person at the office of the commission, 200 Randolph street, Chicago, or by addressing the secretary at the same address.

This interesting announcement is being supplemented by the following letter of instructions issued to all applicants for the examination and those who should thereby be induced to become such:

Candidates will not be assembled in this examination; they may prepare the neces-

sary papers at their homes. The examination will consist of two parts: first, educational experience; second, the preparation of a paper on the best method for the development of the Chicago Public Library.

Each applicant will be requested to file with his application a full statement of his education, together with particulars as to training and experience, tending to qualify him for the position of librarian.

On the day set for the examination, each candidate will be furnished with details of the conditions surrounding the Chicago Public Library, its resources, equipment, and the field to be covered; also a statement of the local population and character of the same, with similar information calculated to place before him the problem which confronts Chicago in the development of its public library. From these data the candidate will be requested to reduce to writing a professional judgment of the proper administration of the library. This paper must be filed with the commission on or before September 16, 1909, and must be the original work of the applicant.

The examiners appointed by the commission to conduct the examination are Dr. Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congress, Clement W. Andrews, librarian of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, Frank P. Hill, librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library, and Howard O. Sprogla, counsel for the Civil Service Commission. This board will have entire charge of the examination under the general direction of the commission, will grade the papers and experience of the candidates, and will prepare the eligible list.

The names of those who file applications will not be made public, nor will the names of applicants who fail to qualify be divulged. In every instance the professional standing of an applicant will be protected. Blank applications may be secured from the commission.

These official documents and the policy they represent are so likely to be epoch-making both in the civil service and library development of the whole country that THE SURVEY is glad to quote them in full and call the widest attention to them. It indulges the hope also of adding to the number of high grade librarians who will be thereby prompted to pass these eminently professional tests for admission to the eligible list, from which the appointment to this important position will be made under the best possible auspices. The whole country will await with expectant interest the issue of this public spirited co-operation to secure the best attainable result.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Inebriety in Boston by Morris Parmlee, is a suggestive outline indicating a comprehensive method for the analysis of the problem of the drunkard under arrest. The method would, of course, need to be followed for a much longer period, to cover a much larger number of cases, and to include substantial verification of data, in order to afford cogent results. The study goes far enough, however, to strengthen the belief that the more extreme forms of drunkenness are in a considerable majority of instances associated with those obvious forms of distorted or abnormal social setting which a thoroughgoing system of social service could to a great degree remove. It also makes clearer than ever that a substantial proportion of arrested drunkards ought at once to be isolated for a considerable period or permanently from the community. As to the specific bearings upon Boston conditions and the comparisons between Boston and other cities, the writer would hardly seem to have sufficient basis of evidence for his statements. All persons dealing in comparative statistics need to remember that a city including only half its urban population within its legal limits is not a comparable unit with cities which have extended their bounds to include a large majority or all of their suburban population.

* * *

While the majority of vagrants find their way across the country by stealing rides on railroads there is a large group including families as well as single men, who travel from town to town on tickets for which charitable societies or individuals pay. The wastefulness of this process as well as the actual evil resulting is discussed in a handbook entitled *Concerning the Issuance of Transportation by Charity Societies*, published by the Field Department. Without question the provision of transportation to needy families is often the wisest solution of their problems when it means returning dependents to relatives who are in a position to care for them, or sending men to places where work really awaits them. If, however, tickets are bought without knowledge of conditions at the proposed destination the family, if its request be bona fide, may find itself only in more desperate straits on arrival; and where, as is so often the case, the request is only an excuse for securing money, or the applicant is merely one of the wanderers, the result is increasing degradation. Therefore investigation at the point of destination is necessary in order to determine whether transportation will be a benefit or not.

To overcome the abuse of this system, a number of organizations granting transportation have entered into an agreement that

they will only secure charitable transportation after an investigation at the point of destination that demonstrates the wisdom of the move, and that transportation shall then be provided to the final destination.

The handbook includes the rules, a list of the signers and also a telegraphic code which makes possible a quick investigation in towns where another signer is located.

Of course the effectiveness of the agreement depends on the number of private organizations and public officials who sign. The Field Department is therefore undertaking an extensive campaign to secure the co-operation of all agencies. Copies of the handbook and agreement may be secured by applying to the Field Department, 105 East 22d street, New York.

* * *

The July *World's Work* is an "uplift number." C. M. Keys under the caption, *The Battle against Pestilence*, tells how Brazil is conquering the yellow fever, how cholera is being driven out of the Philippines and how England is struggling with the cholera situation in India. Logan Waller Page writes on *Good Roads the Way to Progress* and outlines America's opportunity to save \$250,000,000 a year in hauling and to make many more times that amount in increased land values.

Estimating the cost of ill-health to the nation Edwin Björkman classifies all the causes producing sickness into three groups, natural, social and personal, each dovetailing into the other so that "we are beginning to grasp the futility of planning the welfare of any one human being apart from the other. . . ."

"According to my conclusion," he writes, "960,000 sick men and women fail daily to furnish their proper share of productive activity. As that number includes high-salaried officials and professional men, not less than day laborers and shop girls, it seems safe, as before, to place their average weekly earnings at \$9. This makes a daily loss in earnings at \$1,440,000, or about \$450,000,000 a year,—a sum that bears a striking resemblance to those obtained by Professor Fisher and others by the use of foreign sickness rates. In fact, comparing the various estimates arrived at in so many different fashions, it seems hardly possible to escape a recognition of the sum of \$500,000,000 as most nearly approximating the annual loss in salaries and wages through ill-health."

* * *

How to make our schools fit for "world use" is the theme of an article in the same magazine by Frederick Burk, president of the San Francisco State Normal School. There are two classes of world-used materials the author states,—the one used by all

"world workers" in common—religion, art, music, literature civic ideals, etc. and the other used in special vocational pursuits. As a logical necessity there must be two types of schools for general and special training.

"I believe in a school system which shall be like a tree with roots, trunk, and branches. The roots shall reach into the soil of common humanity and draw up from it common sentiments of husband, father, neighbor, and citizen, training the child to love those specific acts or events which our civilization has declared to be good, right, and true; and to hate those specific things which our civilization has declared to be false and wrong; a trunk which shall give that body of knowledge which all intelligent men find necessary, regardless of vocation. Finally, we must have a series of parallel schools which shall prepare our pupils for the varieties of vocational life as specialists. Ideally this system could be carried out by a common school surrounded by the various special vocational schools. For a portion of the school day, of the month, or of the year all pupils would attend the common schools, receiving instruction and training in that knowledge and those sentiments which constitute the common life; and for another portion of the school time they would be instructed in that knowledge and trained in the skill pertaining to some one of the vocations or special pursuits."

* * *

A new department, *The Way to Health*, is announced in the July *World's Work* with this foreword by the editors:

"By careful living and by the prevention of disease the way becomes clear to that condition of society foretold by Huxley when men will regard it as a crime to be sick. We are developing a health conscience, private and public. To help forward on this happy road (for all real and social progress lies this way), *The World's Work* will report, month by month, discoveries and instructive experiences of men and of communities that make for health. The

magazine has the co-operation of Prof. Irving Fisher, and the Committee of One Hundred, and it will work for their aims.

"Answers will be given in these pages or by correspondence to such questions as fall within the proper range of such a department, looking toward personal right living and preserving the public health. It need hardly be said that questions about the cure of personal ailments are questions for physicians only, and lie outside the range of this department."

The first department contains an account of the fight against tuberculosis being carried on by twenty-three big manufacturing concerns of Worcester county, Mass.; describes the new courses in public health and sanitary science that were at Columbia, Cornell and Wisconsin and outlines Boston's "health day" conducted by Dr. Thomas F. Harrington, director of the city's Department of Hygiene.

* * *

Man Efficiency is the title of an attractive booklet issued by the industrial department of the international committee of the Y. M. C. A. Pictures of some of the large manufacturing concerns where Y. M. C. A.'s are in successful operation, with testimony by mill presidents and shop superintendents, go a long way towards demonstrating the real working value of these organizations in moulding efficient men.

* * *

The *Mission News* publishes a page on Society and the Criminal, written by Dr. Beverley Robinson. He closes with this paragraph:

"In what does the final remedy consist essentially in my judgment? Mainly and above all, in proper official visiting to every penal institution, modelled somewhat after what exists in all charitable institutions. These official visitors should be appointed by the highest judges of our courts in every county, or by the New York State Prison Commission, upon whom it should devolve as an absolute obligation, under a new and revised law, at least in this one most important particular."

COMMUNICATIONS

THE WAY OF THE GIRL

TO THE EDITOR:

I have just read *The Way of the Girl* by Belle Lindner Israels in the July issue of *THE SURVEY*. It's really unfortunate that such an article could not be printed on the first page of every daily paper and in every periodical and magazine in the city of New York, that its homes and families might get the warning and instruction that this brief article contains.

In thinking of how to remedy such things one thought came to me that our philan-

thropists would, it seems to me, do greater service to their generation in having such articles put up in pamphlet form and distributing them in the homes and families of their city than putting their thousands of dollars in beautiful works of art and libraries and colleges, as much as these things are needed.

I feel that these pamphlets would create a public sentiment out of which would come a leader to clean up these immoral pest holes.

I know that publicity and mere education would not save all from these pitfalls,

but it should awaken the decent people of the city and they in their might could surely overthrow such debasing conditions. Is it not possible to interest some philanthropist to such an opportunity? This is not theory, for it has been successful in other things, as for instance, the old Tweed Ring, exposure was its downfall.

HUGH H. OWEN.

First Presbyterian Church, Lodi, Wis.

THE RECREATION PROBLEM

TO THE EDITOR:

Several articles in your issue of July 3, especially the very effective one by Mrs. Israels, emphasize the need for providing summer recreation for working girls. I write to call the attention of social workers and other readers of *THE SURVEY* to a method of dealing with this problem, which I believe will be of interest.

Realizing that the problem is much broader than is the need of the working girl, that it includes the young man, the adult working man, the family group as a whole, a department of the People's Institute has been formed to make more accessible to such workers of limited means really desirable recreative opportunities during the summer. The plan consists in examining, through a disinterested committee of educators and social workers, a number of recreation places, and making arrangements with the business managers of such of these as are approved by the committee. These arrangements usually imply reduced rates for those attending the places and bearing the special tickets issued by the People's Institute. The institute circulates among a large list of labor unions, social welfare and educational organizations, notices giving account of these opportunities and of the rates, and on request from the responsible officials of these organizations issues coupons entitling the bearer to purchase admission at the reduced rates accorded.

The value of the plan, which has now been in operation in conjunction with some five recreation places, some at Coney Island, some within Manhattan, does not consist merely in the offering of reduced rates, but in that information as to desirable recreation opportunities is circulated among a large group so that a force of leveling-up competition is made effective. In proportion as the work grows in the number of persons reached, and in the number of approved recreation places with which arrangements are made, will this force be more effective both in turning patronage towards the good and away from the evil, and in stimulating the managers of places just below the line of approval to lift themselves above it.

Though this Department of Summer Recreation is newly established, its methods follow precedents well established through

the winter work of the institute in offering reduced rates to approved plays at stand-ard theaters. Social workers or organizations in Greater New York, who have not received notices from this department, and who desire to learn of the opportunities afforded (for one thing, special parties are often arranged for) may obtain the facts by addressing 318 East 15th street.

MICHAEL M. DAVIS, JR.

Secretary of the People's Institute.

THE RIGHT OF RECALL

TO THE EDITOR:

Your remarks in June 12 issue of *THE SURVEY* regarding the re-appointment of Chief Factory Inspector Delaney in Pennsylvania, are but one more argument in favor of the "right of recall on men and measures." Its application would be a healthy lesson to appointive powers and a restraining influence on men appointed or elected to office.

Conservative people should demand this law as it would give them the opportunity to correct evils without gaining a notoriety they naturally shrink from.

This also suggests another reform that some public-spirited person should investigate and carry out. Every school house is built to make better citizens of boys and girls and all boys should be educated with a view to show that citizenship is an intelligent exercise of the voting privilege.

Then why not build our school houses with a voting booth in one corner of the ground floor so that the rear end of a grocery store, or a livery stable, or some temporarily vacant "hole in the wall" will not have to be used? School buildings in cities could be so constructed as to give a public reading room and meeting place for political and other clubs. We need the "right of recall" and an available place to meet to further such movements.

Des Moines, Ia., has inaugurated the "recall" in its city government. Los Angeles has given us a practical example of what the people can do under that system.

Poughkeepsie has shown the many advantages of the steel constructed, skyscraper court house with the jail at the top. Who will give us the school house that will focus around it a true and progressive citizenship?

FRANK E. CURTIS.

New York.

PITTSBURGH AND PARIS

TO THE EDITOR:

Frank E. Wing's Pittsburgh Survey article on Typhoid Fever in Pittsburgh, and the recently published report of the Paris Health Office suggests an interesting comparison.

Typhoid fever killed over 2,000 people a year in Paris before 1880. In the epidemic year 1882 it did worse; it levied a tribute of 3,214 lives, whereupon steps were taken

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

158 ADAMS STREET, CHICAGO

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Pacific Coast Association of School Nurses.—The Pacific Coast Association of School Nurses was founded at Seattle, Washington, on July 14, 1909, with representatives from California, Oregon and Washington present as charter members. School nurses reported upon their work in Seattle, Tacoma and Los Angeles and Miss Genevieve Cooke, from Oakland, Cal., described the organization of school nursing in San Francisco.

Mrs. Faith Hickey, head of the school nurses of Seattle, was elected president of the new association. Among those present were Miss Elma Hill and Miss E. T. Van Elman, Los Angeles; Mrs. Rachel Shatto, Portland; Miss Antoinette Rathbone, Tacoma; Miss Bertha Harris and Mrs. Edith Hickey, Seattle.

Advertising Tuberculosis.—The Dallas, Texas, *News*, has set an example for other newspapers in the country, which might well be imitated. At the request of that paper the national association furnished them with some simple rules for the prevention and treatment of consumption. These rules the paper has displayed in large type in the same manner as any commercial advertisement, giving from one-quarter to one-half page to this display. At the bottom of the advertisement is a note requesting the reader to clip the notice and post it in a conspicuous place. The *News* keeps this advertisement standing in type, and whenever it has available space, uses it instead of the ordinary "filler." The national association, 105 East 22d street, New York, will gladly furnish similar copy to any newspaper or organization applying for it.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

MILWAUKEE REGULATES ITS STREET TRADES

The Wisconsin Legislature at its recent session passed a law applying only to Milwaukee which marks an advance in restricting and regulating the employment of children in street trades. It provides that no boy under ten and no girl under sixteen can sell or offer to sell newspapers, magazines or periodicals in any street or public place; and no boy under twelve or girl under sixteen can be employed in street trades or distributing handbills or offering merchandise for sale. Boys under fourteen years of age, before entering upon the sale or delivery of newspapers or any work in street trades, must comply with all legal school requirements and have a permit and badge issued by the state factory inspector or a judge. Neither permit nor badge can be issued until application for them has been received in writing from the parent or guardian of the child and until a certificate has been received from the principal of the school which the child is attending, showing his grade and standing in school. Before a permit is issued, the officer must be satisfied that the child is mentally and physically able to work at street trades in addition to his studies. The stringent provision of the child labor law of Wisconsin requiring proof of a child's age applies in every particular to the issuance of newsboys' or street trade permits.

The permit must state the name and age of the child, must describe him by distinguishing facial marks and height and weight. The badge must be worn conspicuously. All permits and badges expire yearly on January 1 and the color of the badge is changed annually. The hours of selling papers or working at street trades are limited to the time when schools are not in session. For the first offense against the law the badge and permit are taken away and for the second the child is brought before the Juvenile

Court, but no fine is provided. Boys are forbidden to loiter or remain around any newspaper office between the hours of 9 A. M. and 3 P. M.

OTHER WISCONSIN CHILD LABOR ADVANCES

Some important and very necessary amendments to the child labor law of Wisconsin were also passed by the Legislature. The principal changes made are:

First, The prohibition of work "at any gainful occupation" besides the specified trades is restored to the act.

Second, No permit for work can be given unless the child has a written and signed recommendation from his school principal or from the clerk of the board of education, when there is no such principal, authorizing the employment of the child as the officer issuing the permit shall determine.

Third, The perilous provisions of the 1907 law that children can work at night to save perishable goods or can be employed at any outdoor work (other than farming) regardless of hours or age are struck out of the bill.

Fourth, The provisions as to children singing or performing in theatrical exhibitions or any public halls are made more stringent.

The exemption of children carrying newspapers which has always been in the Wisconsin law is limited carefully to certain hours and ages; and the provision of the old law excepting its application in the case of goods manufactured "for the personal use of the maker, for his or her family or employer" is now stricken out. The powers of truant officers to enforce all school laws and all statutes relating to child labor are given to the factory inspector and assistant factory inspector.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF "LOS ANGELES 1915"

Massachusetts once gave us a "shot heard around the world." One slogan of her chief city on the Atlantic seaboard has now echoed on the Pacific coast.

However, the precise date of "Boston 1915" may have been determined, there is very definite reason why any Pacific coast city should read magic in linking its name with the year indicated.

In 1915 it is expected that the Panama Canal will open. What this means to Pacific coast cities will be fully appreciated only by visiting them. Accustomed as one may be to the extraordinary growth of our far western cities, he finds all of them looking forward to the great event which shall open wider than ever before the opportunity for a great influx of European trade and workers. Already, it is claimed, steamship agents are preparing to drum up a tremendous tide of European emigration by direct steamship travel through the canal to our Pacific coast. Los Angeles naturally claims that its proximity to the canal will bring a large proportion of this immigration to her.

"Los Angeles 1915" was launched at a meeting of the City Club on July 10, when Dana W. Bartlett chose the phrase as the title for an address in which he proposed some "great dates ahead in preparation for the greatest date, 1915, the opening of the Panama Canal." From the list it is evident that if even a few of the proposed achievements come to pass, Los Angeles will have made a good start toward making her conditions serve in high degree the community needs of the peoples she expects to welcome.

1909 August—Consolidation of Los Angeles, San Pedro and Wilmington accomplished.

1909 November—Election of an honest, efficient, business government for the Greater City.

1910—Extension of territory of Greater Los Angeles by consolidation and annexation.

1910—Completion of the Arroyo Seco Park and Drive.

1910—Completion of original United States plan for breakwater and outer harbor.

1910—A social survey of living conditions in southern California, similar to the Pittsburgh Survey under the Sage Foundation.

1910—An expert accounting of the financial conditions and resources of the city—present and prospective.

1911—Completion of the Agricultural Park project.

1911—Completion of Union Depot.

1911—Important steps in the Robinson plan completed. A plan formed for beautifying the harbor and making harbor cities attractive.

1911—Completion of a plan for a subway in the River Bed and the carrying out of the plan of the improvement societies for the creation of a lake above the subway and the building of an esplanade on the river banks.

1911—Adoption of an up-to-date sanitary code. An income method of handling garbage and sewerage.

1911—A better system of handling city and county "law breakers," "saving the man." Municipal farm and tramp colony.

1911—Income from city land, municipal forests, the appointment of municipal farm and forests commission.

1911—Opening of municipal docks and warehouses and completion of roadway for municipal traction line.

1912—\$3,500,000, good roads project finished.

1912—Adoption of a city plan for the greater city, including housing, sanitation, beautifying, industries, commerce.

1912—A completed plan for metropolitan park and playground system, recreation center, baths and comfort stations.

1912—More simplified municipal government, possibly "government by commission."

1912—A factories commission to help the growth of the city by attracting industries, working for the scattering and proper housing of all factories, and the building of homes for the workers.

1912—Completion of the \$23,000,000 Owens River Aqueduct. Some form of *fiesta* celebrating the coming of water and power.

1913—Eliminating the saloon as a political factor. Strict enforcement of laws against all bad business.

1913—Southern California conference on the distribution of immigrants and the building up of agricultural colonies.

1914—Opening of federal steamship lines to Panama.

1914—Municipal railroad to harbor.

1914—Sufficient progress made on \$10,000,000 municipal harbor to accommodate largest ocean ships.

1914—The public schools well housed. An opportunity given for vocational as well as cultural education, fitting boys and girls for life work and developing not only their minds but their strength, skill and character.

1914—New building for Public Library and branch libraries.

1915—Opening of Panama Canal. Historic pageant. A permanent municipal museum.

Mr. Bartlett, in the Bethlehem institutions he has so enthusiastically devel-

oped, has for some years been stimulating a spirit of civic and social service. Once a year he "gathers a group of students from Southern California colleges who spend a week studying the social institutions of the community. This year, April 2-9, the Los Angeles Institute of Social Study, as it is called, attracted eighty such students who caught a glimpse of the problems of dependency, adult and juvenile delinquency, housing and living conditions, education, recreation and industry, and saw what efforts are now at work to improve conditions.

SOCIAL SERVICE AT CHAUTAUQUA

The Chautauqua assembly, July 19 to 24, was devoted to the interests of social service, the program being provided by the Methodist Federation for Social Service. The end in view was first, the discussion of main social themes in a series of addresses popular, expert and practical; and second, the promotion of the social spirit in the churches. To this end the character and culture of Chautauqua audiences affords an excellent opportunity and the week has been gratifying to all concerned.

The opening address Monday morning was delivered by President Welch of the Ohio Wesleyan University. Dr. Welch is also president of the Methodist federation. In the discussion of worship and service he spoke convincingly of the duty of the church to inculcate the new social morality and of the necessity that the social worker find his inspiration in religion. Dean Vincent spoke in the afternoon on *The Socializing of Theology*. His main conclusions were that the apparent antithesis between the sacred and the secular is in reality only a higher harmony and that creeds are useful only as they are the growing product and expression of human experience. He believes that the social view of theology requires that theology be large and brave enough to include and develop the real facts of life.

The Tuesday speakers were Homer Folks, secretary of the New York State

Charities Aid Association and Charles Stelzle, superintendent of the Presbyterian Department of Church and Labor. The former spoke on *Duties and Opportunities in the Care of Needy Children*, and stated that if more money and effort were directed to the prevention of disease and other causes of dependency, far less would be required for the support of dependent children. He also urged upon all concerned in the care of such children that attention be focused on the needy child rather than on institutions and equipment. Mr. Stelzle spoke on *The American workingman*, declaring him to be distinguished for morality, chivalry, self-respect and efficiency. On personal knowledge he stated that the present tendency of the working classes is not away from but toward the church.

On Wednesday Dr. Frank Mason North of New York, spoke on *The City and the Kingdom*. He said that the modern city is to be regarded, not merely as a sink of iniquity or a blot on civilization, but as a final test of man's development and an instrument by which the Kingdom of God will be developed. "In the American city will be worked out that age-long problem of the oneness of the race."

On Thursday E. J. Ward, superintendent of social centers and playgrounds of Rochester, New York, told how the use of the school-houses as social centers had promoted the democratic and fraternal spirit throughout the varied population of that city. Dr. Josiah Strong, president of the American Institute of Social Service, speaking on *Our Country and the World*, traced the world-changes that have come through the industrial revolution and asserted that America of all countries is best fitted to solve the problems created by the new civilization.

Friday morning W. M. Balch, secretary of the Methodist Federation for Social Service, spoke on *The Labor Union and Human Brotherhood*, showing the identity of the higher ideals of trades-unionism with those of Christianity. Dr. W. M. Tippy of Cleveland, Ohio, the afternoon speaker, spoke on *The Social Value of the Church*.

On Saturday Charles Stelzle told about *The Church and Socialism*, show-

ing why the church cannot wisely undertake a socialistic propaganda. A. J. McKelway of Atlanta, Ga., spoke on the child labor campaign.

In addition to the regular addresses "round-table" discussions were held at 4 o'clock each afternoon, led by one of the speakers of the day.

During the week the General Council of the Methodist Federation for Social Service held its annual session. Reports of the year past indicated a gratifying increase of social study and social service through the denomination. Among the projects authorized by the council the following seem of special interest: A large scale co-operation between the federation and the Field Department for Extension of Organized Charity; the establishment of a bureau of information concerning the social activities of the churches in general and of Methodist churches in particular; the preparation of a report, as requested by the Quadrennial General Conference, to make declaration of such principles and measures of social righteousness as should receive the specific endorsement and support of the church and to recommend means whereby the various agencies of the church may be adapted to social service; the promotion of social studies in all educational institutions of the churches; the publication of a hand-book of social service and a series of leaflets to include "an immediate program of social service by pastors," working plans for local branches, and a course of social study for ministers. The federation also reports the appearance of its volume entitled *The Socialized Church*, edited by Worth M. Tippy.

BAPTISTS AND SOCIAL SERVICE

Last year at the meeting of the Northern Baptist Convention, held in Oklahoma City, a Commission on Social Service of fifteen members was appointed. In the course of the year several committees were named, among which was one to make a study of the social service being done by the churches. The report of this committee showed that the church is doing comparatively little in a direct way in philanthropy, civic betterment, child sav-

ing, community improvement, prison reform or public righteousness.

The commission has undertaken to issue a series of tracts for the times known as the Social Service Series. In these papers, written by men of recognized standing and expert knowledge, the social aspects of religion will be presented and some working program of social action will be suggested. The general outline of the series follows:

The Church and the Family; The Church and the Community; The Church and Wealth and Industry; The Church and Politics; The Church and Social Waste.

Two numbers have appeared—A Reasonable Social Policy for Christian People, by Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago, and The Ethical and Religious Significance of the State, by Prof. James Q. Dealey of Brown University. The series is issued by the American Baptist Publication Society, under the direction of the Social Service Commission.

Another committee has been at work during the year making a careful study of the social evil and the white slave traffic. Labor conditions will also be studied.

In its report to the Northern Baptist Convention the commission called attention to the conditions existing in all communities, and suggested ways of improvement. With reference to labor and industry the commission submitted a report with findings and recommendations. It considered some of the questions that have recently forced themselves upon the public attention. It mentioned some of the conditions that exist today whereby multitudes are deprived of the opportunity to which every man has a right. It dealt with the problem of child labor and referred to the economic invasion of the home, and it submitted for the approval of the convention the program of social and industrial action as outlined by the committee on the church and modern industry of the Federation of the Churches.

The commission made several recommendations which were approved by the convention. First, that a more systematic and comprehensive effort be

made to instruct the people in their social duties. It was suggested that classes for social study be formed and that an effort be made to unite men in every community to work for better conditions. Another recommendation had to do with moral instruction.

It was also suggested that, until the policy of the churches with respect to religious and moral education shall be more fully settled, the work of social service be made a department of the convention and that it be placed in the care of a commission of fifteen persons, one-third of whom shall be elected each year. These recommendations were approved, and this Commission on Social Service was appointed:

For three years: S. Z. Batten, Nebraska; Walter Rauschenbusch, New York; W. Q. Rosselle, Pennsylvania; A. W. Wishart, Michigan; Shailer Mathews, Illinois. For two years: H. P. Whidden, Ohio; George W. Coleman, Massachusetts; C. R. Henderson, Illinois; Edward Holyoke, Rhode Island; Emory W. Hunt, Ohio. For one year: J. W. Brougher, Oregon; H. Pattison, Minnesota; Robert Whitaker, California; Charles J. Galpin, Wisconsin; George T. Webb, Pennsylvania.

NEW YORK'S

NEW BUILDING CODE

For over two months past New York city has been going through the throes of a very strenuous public discussion and campaign with regard to a proposed new building code. The code was reported by a special commission composed of some twenty-five members who were appointed by the Board of Aldermen over a year ago. This was the second commission of its kind appointed by the board, an earlier body which rendered an admirable report having been set aside for the later commission without any ostensible reason, so far as the public was informed. The report of the code commission, when it was presented both to the public and the aldermen, came to them under circumstances which led to its being scrutinized with great care and viewed with considerable distrust. Majority and minority reports were both submitted. In the latter it was charged that there had been bad faith on the part of the majority and that their

report unduly favored certain special interests dealing in one or two kinds of building material, virtually charging that the code would create a monopoly for these classes of material and would exclude from the market other materials equally good which have been in use in New York and other cities for many years.

The code was referred to the committee on buildings of the Board of Aldermen, and after extended hearings lasting over a month, at which everybody who had anything to say had full opportunity to be heard, it was finally reported back to the aldermen by this committee, after a divided vote of nine to eight, although nearly all of the objectionable features of the code remained unchanged and as it was first reported.

Notwithstanding this serious division in the committee the code was passed on the same day by the Board of Aldermen by a vote of forty to thirty-eight, after a rather strenuous debate.

Those opposed did not even then give up the fight, but carried on their campaign of publicity and of objection, holding mass meetings, flooding the papers with adverse statements and organizing a general campaign of opposition. The result of all this was the recent action of Mayor McClellan in the rather spectacular interruption of his summer vacation and his unexpected return to New York to preside at the public hearing which had been scheduled in his absence by the acting mayor.

Some days were given up by the mayor to hearing the various persons opposed and in favor, the whole code being taken up section by section, with the result that it was vetoed by Mayor McClellan on July 24 and returned to the aldermen with a veto message, in which it was pointed out that the main grounds of objection were that the code was made to take effect immediately, which was contrary to all precedents, and was unwarranted, and would result in great hardship to architects, builders and owners; that the large discretionary powers given to the superintendent of buildings were unwise, and especially that such powers were improperly safeguarded, there being no right of appeal

from the decisions of the superintendent except in cases where the superintendent had denied the application of the person affected; that a material known as cinder concrete was apparently unduly discriminated against and that this material should not be barred from use except after tests of such nature as would indicate its unfitness for use; also that no provision had been made in the code for the protection of shingle-roofed houses in the outlying sections, notwithstanding the fact that the Board of Fire Underwriters had pointed out that the Chelsea fire and its widespread disastrous consequences were largely due to such a condition.

This ends the first part of the fight. In all probability nothing further will be done with the code until after election, the Board of Aldermen having adjourned for the summer, not to meet until the middle of September. Moreover, as it has been charged that the discrimination in favor of a certain building material has been due to political influence, the code has been brought into the approaching municipal campaign, and for this reason there is little likelihood of the matter being taken up again until after election.

While all of this is seemingly a very local matter, it is really of interest and importance to every city in the country, as practically every American city models its housing laws upon the New York statutes.

The proposed code is by no means to be entirely condemned. In many respects it is an admirable piece of work; in others it is defective. It is a great advance on New York's present code, but some of its defects are serious and should be corrected before it is finally adopted.

SUMMER SESSION OF THE CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS

The summer session of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy closed last week with a registration of seventy-five students, fifty-two of them women and twenty-three men. They came from sixteen states: California, Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Idaho, Iowa, Minnesota, Illinois, Wisconsin, In-

diana, Kentucky, Mississippi, Ohio, Michigan and New York. There were eighteen college graduates, nine undergraduates and the remainder had special experience and training in institutional and social work, together with general educational training which fitted them to take the courses. Among them were twenty-nine attendants and nurses from nine public institutions for the insane and mentally defective in Illinois and in Nebraska, Wisconsin, Indiana and New York. Leave of absence under pay was given them to train themselves to furnish occupations for their patients. With several other students registered for this course, they were taught basketry, weaving, stenciling, book-binding and brass work by Prof. Edward F. Worst, head of industrial arts department of the Chicago Normal School. They also were trained in outdoor and indoor games and recreations. A course of lectures by eminent specialists in the care of the insane and the value of occupation in the treatment of insanity, was supplemented by visits to the asylums at Dunning and Elgin, where they had opportunity to practice the handicrafts with the patients.

A practical course for playground workers was given by Edward B. De Groot, director of playgrounds and gymnasiums of the South Park System of Chicago. It was conducted at some of the recreation centers under his charge. The course consisted of lectures on the history, aims, ideals and functions of the playground; on their organization in cities, towns and villages; their equipment and administration and activities. After each lecture there was a demonstration of activities on the playground or in the gymnasium, and the opportunity was given to students to participate not only in the games but in the play festival held at one of the recreation centers.

The general course on present aspects of social movements, which those who registered for both of the specialized courses attended, was conducted by Prof. Graham Taylor, president of the school, assisted by specialists from the public and private agencies engaged in preventive, ameliorative and construc-

¹ Note Remarks.

Feeble minded children who should properly be in custodial institutions.

Truant, incorrigible and vicious children, of defective mentality, who should be segregated in special schools.

Truant, incorrigible and vicious children, of fair mentality, who should also be segregated in special schools.

Backward children, who require instruction by special methods in small special classes.

Dull children, who would be benefited by special instruction but who do not absolutely require it.

The official report of the investigation is presented in four tables, showing the number of children in each of the groups according to school districts, departments and grades, as well as the number of such children in the special schools now in operation. The proportion of defective children to the total school population in per centum figures is also stated, for each group of defectives in each school district.

A condensed summary of the report is presented in the table on the preceding page, which refers to the whole school population.

The general accuracy of the report is shown by the close correspondence of the census figures contributed by each of the eleven school districts of the city. It is also interesting to note that the total number of children stated to be defective (11,543) agrees well with the number of children two or more years below grade (9,969) because of failure of promotion. The latter number was determined in 1908 by Superintendent Brumbaugh, the inquiry revealing also the fact that 483 children who had been three or more years in grade were included in this number.

The congregation and stagnation of the defective groups in the primary grades are well demonstrated. Of the 4,770 children (groups I, II, III, IV) who require special educational methods, only 687 are in the grammar grades, while 4,053 are primary pupils.

The truant and incorrigible children (groups II and III) are also shown to remain largely in the primary grades. Thus 1,277 of these children are in the primary grades against 301 in the grammar grades, a proportion of four to one, which is double the ratio of the primary

to the grammar school population. Such a proof that crime and ignorance are usually associated is a strong argument for the prevention of wrong-doing by adoption of teaching methods suited to the individual capabilities and needs of children.

In one detail the accuracy of the report may be questioned. The number of children stated to be feeble minded (442) is in excess of the figures to be expected (about 150, or .1 per cent of the school population). These high figures are due to the diagnosis of the cases by the teachers. The difficulty experienced in judging the degree of mental defect in the case of young children (231 of the 442 so-called cases of feeble mind were in the first grade) evidently resulted in unduly pessimistic conclusions.

GAS TANKS vs. THE CITY BEAUTIFUL

LOUIS HEATON PINK

The Consolidated Gas Company of New York a few years ago erected a large gas tank along Riverside Drive shadowing Grant's tomb. There was opposition from the press, but nothing was done. The Flatbush Gas Company, a subsidiary of the Brooklyn Union, has just completed a tank 191 feet in diameter and 237 feet high in Flatbush in the Borough of Brooklyn. This is the highest structure in the borough. It stands in a region of homes, and immediately adjacent to the Kings County Hospital and other public buildings. It can be plainly seen from Eastern Parkway, the Brooklyn Institute, and Prospect Park. It has taken away from many the equity in their homes, and is a blot upon the landscape for miles around. The Public Service Commission was first appealed to by the property owners and Civic Associations of Flatbush, but it decided that it had no jurisdiction. Two suits for an injunction were brought, one by the property owners and one by the city of New York. The city was defeated at special term, and recently the Appellate Division dismissed its appeal with scant courtesy on the ground that an offense to the sight

cannot be a nuisance. This is not good logic, and should not be good law. If such a structure unreasonably destroys the comfortable enjoyment of property, it comes within the definition of nuisance. No one of the senses should be discriminated against. It is to be hoped that the Court of Appeals will have opportunity to pass upon this question.

American cities were formerly concerned only with growth. Now they are placing their energies in development. Eyesores such as this, destructive of property and the beauty of a city should not be tolerated. Gas tanks and all their kith and kin should be placed, not where it is most economical, but where they will do the least harm. When erected in a city they should be built of moderate height. The "skyscraper" tanks are unnecessarily harmful. If the courts will not protect municipalities against such invasion, adequate laws should be at once enacted. In England tanks may not be erected within 300 yards of a residence without the consent of the owner and occupants. In no continental city can tanks be placed without regard for public welfare. The location of gas works and tanks should be subject to the approval of the public service commission, and the consent of owners of houses used exclusively for residential purposes within a prescribed distance should be required. We guard residential sections against saloons by such a law. Who would not prefer a saloon as a neighbor to a huge gas tank?

REAL NEIGHBORS

ALICE E. ROBBINS

I went one day to a small union printing shop not far from Lawrence House in Baltimore to have some tickets made. The proprietor, a quiet, intelligent man of German type, showed some interest in my entertainment and after he had heard a little about the house, said, "I do work like that." "And I too, I help father," chimed in a young man who was typesetting near by. Then it was my turn to be interested and to listen to explanations. In amazement I heard that

for three years, within a half hour's ride of Lawrence House, in a suburb of working people, neighborhood work as varied and interesting as that of any social center had been organized and carried on by real neighbors. Thus began my acquaintance with this remarkable family of father, mother and four sons, who to all intents and purposes make up "the residents" in a "settlement" family in Morrell park.

Before I had time to visit the family, Mrs. Ruths came in to Lawrence House "to learn." You may be sure I sat at the feet of this woman, who with far less than normal strength and vigor, besides doing all the work for a family of five, entertains her neighbors every night in the week and runs a large industrial school for children on Saturday. With more faith in my cause than in myself, I listened as she told me of the social clubs, the Red Cross nurses, of plays rewritten for entertainments, of outings and summer camps, sewing and crocheting classes and cooking schools, all these enterprises conducted by the Ruths family in their own home without financial support of any kind, or knowledge of any similar undertaking anywhere. "We all help in the work," said Mrs. Ruths. "The older sons are leaders in the social clubs; one being especially good in dramatics and entertainments; Mr. Ruths himself drills the boys of the Volunteers and looks after the gymnasium features; and my youngest son, when he comes home from school, fills the lamps and brings in the coal for the Armory."

The Armory is a building in the rear of the Ruths' home and was built by Mr. Ruths and his sons at night when most people were in bed. The start on the building was made by using the remains of a stable and wagon shed. Lumber given by the Baltimore and Ohio camp near there finished the structure, which is of good size and unusually attractive in appearance. The windows and doors fall almost anywhere in quite an artistic fashion. The walls are decorated with panels of red paper which is a pretty background for the guns of the young soldiers.

The first visit I made to the Armory was on a winter's night when a "social" held the floor. One of the older members of the club had that winter introduced a country "hoe-down" unknown to the younger generation. It was an irresistibly spirited dance that warmed one's blood in spite of the chilly atmosphere of the building. Mrs. Ruths and one son managed the floor. Refreshments were served in one corner under the direction of the second son. Mr. Ruths and another son, much resembling his father, sat by the stove meditating on new plans. Mr. Ruths is the philosopher, Mrs. Ruths, the executor of the household.

"I have all the young people in the community," said Mr. Ruths to me when I joined him at the stove, "and the children, more than we can handle. Now I want the men. I have a plan of talks here on Sunday afternoon on the order of Y. M. C. A. work. Can you help me with speakers." I thought I could.

"A large number of the men of my community do not go to church. I know them all as none of the clergymen do. They will come if I ask them." Mr. Ruths has always been a good church member but the ministers of some of the churches in the community are opposed to his work and have preached against it. "Now why is that?", he said to me, "I take my boys to the church entertainments and they are the best behaved there. Moreover, the ministers and the neighborhood generally complained of the noise the young men made on the "road" Sunday afternoon and at night. I thought I was a benefit to the community when I took them into my home and gave them something to do. Now why are the ministers against me?" I didn't know.

It was about midnight when I came away. The dance was still on. Mrs. Ruths, who never leaves the young people unchaperoned, was as merry as the rest. "Oh yes, I get tired," she said, "sometimes before the young people come in I dread the noise, but after they are here I feel better. Yes, they do as much for me as I do for them."

A CONTRIBUTION TO PLAY

Reviewed by BELLE LINDNER ISRAELS

It is certain that we are to have an era of amusements for the people. Having cut our teeth on juvenile courts, prevention of tuberculosis and improved housing we are now to learn to walk in the paths of the joys of the multitude.

In other words, it is evident that amusements will become an important phase of social study in the immediate future and contributions to its literature are welcome finds. In the preface to *The People at Play*,¹ Rollin Lynde Hartt says that he has preferred not to develop a thesis since there is no coherency in the subject. He says that his spirit is that of the student of comparative ethics and that the people in their amusements differ from the readers of his book less in character than in intelligence. Sometimes in the course of the book one remembers with a little irritation that no thesis will be developed. This is especially true in a chapter which the author calls *Society* and where he must have had a very narrow escape from analyzing the consequences of the proposition he sets forth. *Society* is perhaps the best chapter. Its appeal is perhaps more cogent because it deals with an individual. The Muses in the Back Street certainly holds second place. The author has a catholicity of literary acquaintance ranging from the Bible to the *National Baseball Magazine*. His style is delightfully satirical and splendidly pointed to bring out an underlying lesson with fascinating indirection. He treats of the burlesque show, the amusement park, the dime museum, the moving picture show, melodrama and least entertainingly baseball.

Mr. Hartt has recognized the primal instinct for play and has described with a vivid pen and facile pencil those types of amusement which gratify the more natural among us. The Muses in the Back Street certainly touches the most serious note in the book and *Society* is

¹The People at Play by Rollin Lynde Hartt. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. 317. Price \$1.50 net. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

vibrant with possibilities. The book is a timely one and ought to help the professional and the lay reader to a sympathetic understanding of those forms of recreative effort which we all too readily cast aside.

The author deserves mention as an illustrator as well. His drawings both decorate and elucidate his text. His figures and silhouettes and Vierge-like use of the solid black give unusually artistic value to the printed page. The book with its delicious satire is a permanent contribution to the literature of play.

THE ART OF RETAIL SELLING

Reviewed by ELIZABETH B. BUTLER

Russell Sage Foundation

"For a salesperson to know what gives the article its price value, whether it is style, novelty, utility, bulk, rarity of material, to know under what circumstances it can best be used as a staple, for beauty, for use, for occasional service, for steady wear—and many points other than these—and to adapt this knowledge to each customer—is to become a specialist and to be sought after for advice as the man or woman in the private office is, not to be approached as a mere lackey to pass goods back and forth over the counter." This enlarged concept of the function of the salesperson in a retail store is the keynote of Miss Diana Hirschler's textbook, just issued, *The Art of Retail Selling*.¹

How the textbook came to be written is part of the history—now in the making—of the movement for industrial education. Not organically connected with any of the propagandist societies dealing with the theory of industrial training, the New York Institute of Mercantile Training is the outcome of the need for efficient help, recognized by local merchants and by others connected with the mercantile business. Ground was broken in the winter of 1908-09 by the

opening of classes in salesmanship, in the public night schools of the city of New York. These classes, conducted by Miss Hirschler, which opened without a single enrollment, speedily reached and maintained during the entire school session an average attendance of twenty-five. This, to those of us who know the difficulty of maintaining night school attendance, the tax on students at work during the day of coming regularly to class at night, is significant that the appeal made by the salesmanship class struck vitally at a need recognized by salespeople as by their employers.

The Root Newspaper Association—consisting of fourteen or more trade journals—annexed Miss Hirschler and incorporated her plans into their newly established institute where other branches of mercantile training are taught. Not to reach twenty-five pupils, or fifty, but the thousands who, because their capacities are undeveloped, now rank as unskilled, was their determination. There are teachers equipped to teach geography or grammar or stenography or mechanical drawing. But where are the teachers who can make salesmanship an occupation for experts? The answer given by Miss Hirschler is: We can train the teachers. Every half hour's talk given today by a store superintendent to a section of the salespeople, on conduct and how to make out a salescheck, is the nucleus, the opportunity for further and more definite instruction on retail selling as an occupation. We can present to these store superintendents a course of instruction not vague, but practical and concrete, which they in turn can use in systematic talks to their salespeople. The strides made in efficiency by the salespeople, as the half hour talks gain coherence, will demonstrate not only to the class instructors but to the community that this is a kind of commercial training which they cannot allow to lapse or leave to chance.

The textbook is the outcome of this idea. Personal class instruction is to be given, with the textbook as a basis for the lessons. It is further proposed to offer correspondence courses for store superintendents and class instructors as

¹*The Art of Retail Selling*; a textbook for salespeople, by Miss Diana Hirschler. Published by the New York Institute of Mercantile Training, \$2. Pp. 168. Graded discounts on lots to stores and classes. The book may also be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

to class methods supplementary to the textbook in use by the store workers.

The subject-matter of the book is divided into three sections: 1. The customer. 2. The article. 3. The salesperson. The first section deals with the principle of confidence-building as prerequisite to a successful business, and with the attributes in a salesperson which create confidence. The personal appearance of the salesperson and her manner of approach are co-important with her ability to understand the different personalities with which she must deal, to recognize the outward signs of personality, to guide the customer through the several mental steps by which a decision is reached.

In the second section, the author gives the clue for acquiring expert knowledge of stock. To be an expert adviser, the salesperson must know what the article is composed of and how it is made, as well as the points which make it desirable to a customer. The first part of this knowledge may be called upon but rarely, yet even so it creates self-confidence and lends poise and dignity to the making of quick sales. A brief explanation is given of the chief raw materials entering into articles of manufacture, of the way in which these raw materials are obtained, of the primary manufacturing processes, such as weaving, felting, knitting, preparing of skins, metals, and woods. From this as a starting point, from reading, from talks with the buyer of the department, the salesperson can build up a knowledge of her particular stock. She should learn the selling points of the article, and should think of it in the surroundings in which it will ul-

timately be placed, in the possession of the customer to whom it will appeal; by so doing she will be able to clinch sales by effective suggestions.

The third section deals specifically with the development of personality. Tact, observation, a trained memory, a useful imagination—these qualities, the author holds, are within the reach of each earnest seeker after them. There is a balancing of qualities in individuals by which those who are more gifted in some directions have usually a deficit in others, and the effort toward the achievement of a rounded personality is fairly equal. The underlying principle, however, is that "the salesperson should have an earnest desire to be of service to the customer."

This textbook is pioneer work, an initial attempt to bring concretely within the grasp of serious workers the acquisition of a skill hitherto considered intangible. It is written to reach the saleswoman as she is today. Crisp of style, compact of phrase, colored often by the use of modern business slang, it takes up simply and definitely the steps in the saleswoman's power to make. It does not profess to be the last word on the subject. When the pupil acquires proficiency to leave the primer and to take up the intricacies that lie farther on, this is a mark of progress, of the vitality inherent in what has been taught. That this book has been written is a milestone on the road to be covered by industrial training. That others may dig deeper into the ground broken by the author and along the lines suggested by her, will be but a proof of its success.

THE ILLINOIS STATE'S INSTITUTIONS ACT

As it left the hands of the Illinois state commissioner of public charities the "bill for an act to revise the laws relating to charities and correction," is conceded by the experts to whose critical judgment it was submitted, to have "touched high water mark on the subject of state administration of charities and correction." Such is the opinion of Homer Folks, notwithstanding his admission that "in many respects the bill was a departure from the policy of the New York State Charities Aid Association," in the secretaryship of which he is recognized to have attained authoritative judgment.

That the measure merited this recognition is due to the pre-eminent ability and standards of public duty possessed by the most capable and efficient State Board of Charities Illinois ever had—Dr. Frank Billings, Rev. Emil G. Hirsch, D. D., Dr. John T. McAnally, Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Mrs. Clara B. Bourland and William C. Graves, its executive officer and secretary. In their epoch making biennial report, summarized in the special bulletin of the Illinois Board of Charities for March, 1909, they described the out-working of their plans "for the complete regeneration of the public charities system of Illinois." Building "from the bottom upward," they aimed at that "highest efficiency" with suitable economy which requires concentrated business management and extended supervision over other institutions" and planned "for a modern system of joint estimates and purchase and for such other modification of state charities as may appear to be for the best interests of the wards of the state."

They were fully aware that in its combined administrative and visitorial provisions their bill "runs full tilt into a controversy that has disturbed national and state conferences of charities and correction for many years, and that still is in an eruptive state." Nevertheless, they succeeded so well in their endeavor to make a practical combination of the best features of both systems, and to rep-

resent the best thought of this generation on the subject," that Edward T. Devine said they had "secured the best affirmative features both of the centralized and what may be called the educational policies." Alexander Johnson also wrote: "There is no single feature of the bill which is an untried experiment. Every thing has been tested with success. What is new is the combination of the various features in an original manner."

LEGISLATIVE PERVERSITY

From a source of such high local and national repute as these Illinois commissioners of charities, and with such authoritative endorsements as the bill everywhere received, the members of the Legislature might well have considered it an honor to themselves and a credit to the state to enact the measure which would have put Illinois in the lead of such legislation. But, unfortunately, the entire session was purloined from any fair consideration of public business to a fierce factional fight in the dominant party, for what might prove to be an advantageous position in view of the pending decision of the Supreme Court upon the validity of the direct primary law. In that struggle almost every consideration for the public welfare was ruthlessly ignored or deliberately sacrificed, to retain all possible political patronage for use in case the power was taken from the people and returned to the party organization—as indeed it was by the subsequent decision of the court.

And so the non-political control of the state charities and correction, which was provided for and strictly safeguarded in the bill, was imperiled by serious modifications in the Senate and by the passage of the substitute measure in the House. These abortive results were promptly repudiated by the framers of the measure. Thus thrown into the conference committee of the two houses, the compromise came before both bodies too late in the last sessions even to be printed and read by those who were forced to vote upon it.

The measure thus blindly enacted and made a law by receiving the governor's signature retains many of the best features of the original bill. But it was laid so wide open to political manipulation by the changes made in conference committee, that it may prove to be a serious menace to the state institutions and the welfare of the wards of the state. Not only were the penal and reformatory institutions taken bodily from under its provisions and boldly left to their fate under the spoils system, but the Board of Administration of five members, which supersedes the managing board of the seventeen charitable institutions, becomes a bi-partisan body subject to complete political control. As constituted by the original bill this Board of Administration was to consist of three members, one to be qualified by education and experience to advise the board regarding the care and treatment of the insane, feeble-minded and epileptic, one thus qualified to advise regarding charities and children, and one to advise regarding the care, education, and correction of delinquents and criminals. As it appears in the law only one of the five members "shall be qualified by experience" (note, not by "education" also) "to advise the board regarding the care and treatment of the insane, etc." One other shall be designated by the governor to be the president of the board. The remaining three members, it is naively provided, "shall be reputable citizens"! "No more than three members of the board shall belong to or be affiliated with the same political party." It is possible for any one governor to appoint a controlling majority of the board, who hold their offices for six years, instead of during good behavior and efficiency as the bill provided. Even the charities commission which succeeds to the advisory functions of the present State Board of Charities was also made bi-partisan, a majority of whom may likewise be appointed by one and the same governor.

Only a good and resolute governor stands between the state institutions and the most highly powerful and concentrated political machine ever organized in Illinois to exploit them and the common-

wealth for personal or partisan purposes.

These are some of the bigger flies, among not a few lesser ones, which threaten to spoil the ointment, the remainder of which, however, is precious. Indeed, the very value of the remaining features of the original measure seems enhanced by the possibility of their frustration or perversion. The enormity of the possible perversity is the more abhorrent just because there is so much good left either to be lost or perverted.

CENTRALIZING BALANCED POWER

That enough of the bill is left in the act that is worth any governor's protection and is worth fighting for by the people, is obvious at a glance over the following brief summary of its provisions: It combines the advantages of a central, salaried board of administration giving its entire time to the service, well supplemented by, but yet co-ordinated with an unpaid, roving, "charities commission," and local, volunteer boards of visitors appointed to visit each institution. The responsibility for fiscal administration and the purchase of supplies are still further centralized in the appointment of a "fiscal supervisor" and a board of joint estimate consisting of the managing officers of the various state institutions, who shall annually elect two of their own members to serve with the fiscal supervisor as a standing purchasing committee. All funds are likewise placed in the custody of the state treasurer and auditor.

Inspection and visitation are most amply provided for. The authoritative inspectional and investigational function of the Board of Administration is extended, to county, town, and municipal institutions and agencies, including outdoor poor relief, almshouses, children's homes, finding societies, orphanages, lying-in hospitals, county jails, city prisons, houses of correction and all places in which persons convicted or suspected of crime are confined. It is also charged with licensing as well as investigating and inspecting all institutions, houses, or places in which any person is detained for care or treatment, for mental or nervous diseases, and is held responsible

for ascertaining how the insane are treated. The visitation of children placed out by home-finding associations and orphanages is put in its charge.

A unique feature of the act makes it obligatory on every county, city, or village to submit plans and specifications for the erection, addition or remodeling of a jail, almshouse, infirmary, prison, house of correction or workhouse to the Board of Administration for criticism and suggestion before proceeding with the work.

The charities commission is also charged with the investigation of the whole system of public institutions, examination of their condition and management, especially state hospitals and almshouses: "When directed by the governor [it] shall investigate as a whole commission, or by a committee thereof, into any or all phases of the equipment, management or policy of any state charitable institution and report its findings and recommendations to the governor. At its own initiative and discretion it may inquire into the equipment, management and policies of all institutions and organizations coming under the supervision and inspection of the Board of Administration. A board of three visitors for each state charitable institution is also to be appointed by the governor to maintain an effective inspection, once each quarter in the case of state institutions, and once each month in that of district institutions.

The over-lapping of this function of visitation and inspection, thus independently exercised, by three distinct bodies, may possibly result in the failure to hold any one of them accountable for final responsibility. There is also an obvious disparagement in allowing the charities commission only \$3,600 for the salary of its executive secretary, who is charged with investigating and inspecting the work of officials on the Board of Administration and those in institutions drawing salaries of \$6,000.

Legal custody and care of the insane and defectives are extended and provided for by codifying the act for removing both classes of patients from county poorhouses to state institutions and for taking the Cook county institutions un-

der the care of the state. Two humane and economic features, which are new to Illinois, are incorporated in the act. They provide for the boarding-out of patients in family homes and the visitation of such patients, and for the after-care of the insane by which newly discharged, convalescent patients are followed up by hospital physicians to see that their surroundings, occupations, care, and treatment are favorable to permanent recovery. Occupations for inmates are to be developed and co-ordinated so as to promote the mental, moral and physical improvement or happiness of the inmates and also subserve the economical and efficient administration of the institutions. Feeble-minded women and children are to be removed from county poorhouses to the Lincoln School and Colony. The State Psychopathic Institute, which has hitherto depended for its existence upon an appropriation to the asylum at Kankakee, is independently established by this act and equipped with a psychologist and employes of its own.

The consideration shown in eliminating from the titles of the state institutions the words "asylum" and "insane" so that they will hereafter be known as "the Elgin State Hospital, the Kankakee State Hospital, etc." will inevitably lead to confusion outside the state if not within it.

The act admirably provides for an annual meeting of the superintendents and managing officers of all the state institutions with the members of the charities commission, to consider all the questions relating to the treatment and care of the insane, defective and other wards of the state, and to the management and improvement of institutions caring for such wards. It is also an advanced step to provide the traveling expenses of all officials invited by the charities commission to attend conferences of officers responsible for the administration of public funds used for the relief or maintenance of the poor, and also county and institution visitors. The consideration of the details of management and methods to be pursued to secure economical and efficient conduct of such institutions, and the most effective plans for granting pub-

lic relief for the poor, which is thus provided for, ought to be productive of increased intelligence and efficiency.

The exemption of the superintendents of state institutions from the extension of the civil service law over all employees of the Board of Administration and the state institutions under its care, is one of the most unfortunate changes made in the measure. As in the case of the Board of Administration, the uncertainty and assured brevity in the tenure of the superintendents' office will not allow any man to hope for a life career in such service, which will therefore fail to attract the most capable men.

That every change made in the bill by the Legislature is an acknowledged concession to the political control and partisan use of the state institutions, has already been ominously demonstrated. For even the minor party organizations in Chicago have already publicly nominated henchmen who they assure the governor will be acceptable representatives of the party on the bi-partisan Board of Administration. Among all

the names thus presented or mentioned in the press, not one measures up to the type of man and official imperatively demanded by the exactions of such professional service and peculiar responsibility.

It seems incredible that in the execution of such an act the governor should be compelled to appoint men to administer it because they are affiliated with one or another political party. Whether it will be possible to find the most capable men within such affiliations is seriously doubted. Still more preposterous is it to compel the state to run the risk of the maladministration of its great institutions or of having them ruthlessly exploited, as they have been before, as the party spoils of a state machine.

In this supreme crisis Illinois can only look to Governor Deneen to rise above all partisan consideration and dictation and seize the opportunity thus presented to him and the state, to put Illinois in the very front rank in the administration of its public charities, by appointing the best specialists available upon their boards of control and inspection.

PORTABLE SHOWER BATHS

T. M. BEADENKOFF

SECRETARY FREE PUBLIC BATH COMMISSION, BALTIMORE

"Flushing the streets is good, but flushing off the youngsters themselves is still better," wrote Emily G. Balch in *Charities and The Commons* for July 25, 1908, under the caption, A New Idea in Public Baths. Several of the Baltimore bath commissioners concluded to improve on this suggestion, and instead of giving "hose shower baths," decided to secure more privacy and better equipment by using a tent.

On an open lot in a congested residential section near the docks the tent, fourteen by twenty feet, was set up. It was divided by muslin into three sections—office and towel room, waiting room and dressing room where on wooden strips ten feet long, clothes hooks were set. There was a substantial wooden floor.

The bathroom proper occupied about

eight by twelve feet, along the side of the tent and screened from the street by a strip of canvas. Here was erected a rough wooden frame carrying water pipes and four shower heads regulated by a valve within the reach of each bather. The floor of this bathing section had open spaces through which the water drained to the nearby street gutter. The water supply was obtained from the city department which permitted the commissioners to tap the street main.

The entire plant, including rent of two fourteen by twenty feet tents for a month, purchase of lumber for floors in dressing room and shower room, laying of floors, making of water connections, and all the labor for construction amounted to about \$150. The maintenance for one week, including two men



PORTABLE TENT BATHS.

as managers, one in the office and one in the shower room, cost about twenty or twenty-five dollars.

On the first afternoon, seventy-five boys and men used the baths and on the following day 173. This tent bath accommodated about 500 men and boys during the ten or twelve days of its existence. A similar plan could be worked out for three or four summer months in many southern cities.

The Baltimore Bath Commission decided, however, to erect a more substantial "corner-lot bath" and last spring constructed portable showers supplied with hot and cold water. These baths were built as a slender wooden shell covered with galvanized iron. The interior was divided into seven compartments about eight feet long by three and one-half feet wide, each of which was subdivided so that with entire privacy the bather had a small room in which to dress and undress and a second compartment in which to take his shower.

The hot water was obtained from a small coal stove with a water jacket and a fifty-gallon tank, all placed in a small lean-to adjoining the main building.

Two of these portable showers were built, carried to the crowded sections of

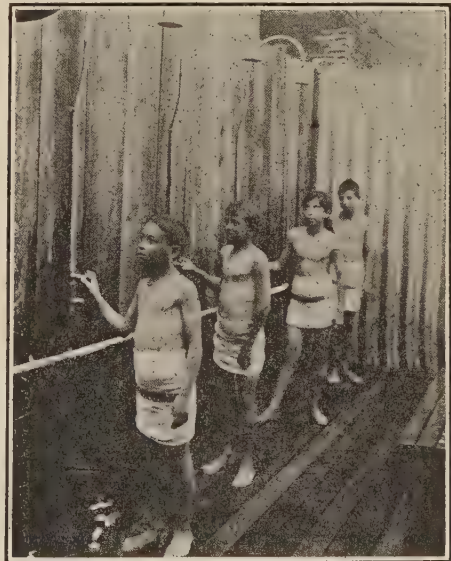
the city and set up on vacant corner lots, where they are now in use.

The success of the plan was immediate. The patronage of each house on warm days amounts to about 400. On two days a week only women and girls are admitted and 350 to 400 avail themselves of the opportunity for a bath. On the women's days matrons are in charge of the houses.

The Baltimore commissioners believe that these baths, whether in tents or galvanized iron houses, will prove of especial service in playgrounds where connection with city water mains may be made, and also in those cities which are not prepared to spend

\$25,000 or \$50,000 for permanent indoor baths. These cheaper showers could be built sufficiently tight to withstand the colder weather and then at a moderate expense so constructed as to furnish baths all the year round in many places.

The Public Bath Commission of Baltimore is one of the city's unpaid boards. The work has now developed so that eleven bathing stations are in operation.

PORTABLE TENT BATHS.
Shower room.

LOPSIDED DEVELOPMENT

NORVAL D. KEMP

SECRETARY TO THE CHAIRMAN, THE ROOSEVELT COMMISSION TO INVESTIGATE THE SOCIAL ECONOMY OF RURAL COMMUNITIES

"I warn my countrymen that the great recent progress made in city life is not a full measure of our civilization; for our civilization rests at bottom on the wholesomeness, the attractiveness, and the completeness, as well as the prosperity, of life in the country. The men and women on the farms stand for what is fundamentally best and most needed in our American Life."—Theodore Roosevelt.

The record of constructive philanthropy in the United States is remarkable from an almost exclusively city point of view. Year after year great national and local organizations lay out programs, prepare budgets, collect funds, hire expert workers, and take account of actual progress made—in the cities. Existing conditions are constantly being probed, diagnosed, cauterized, cured or cut off, while new conditions crowd on the outskirts of the old, waiting their turn. The cities are surely the hospitals for all and sundry social ills, and their organization, staff and equipment are bright with efficiency and use.

The great pity attending this social vaccination, treatment and convalescence, is the jealousy with which the cities hold on to their hospital function and permanently house all patients applying.

It smacks of absurdity to follow our present course to its logical conclusion. Social conditions are associated with population, and so must their treatment be. If we continue to confine this treatment to population after it has come to the cities, then the resident population of country districts (which is generally thought to be a good thing) will shortly be exhausted. For sooner or later all social conditions need treatment. As backing up this course of reasoning the population statistics of the United States are good to quote. At the time of the adoption of the constitution eight or ten per cent of our citizens lived in towns and cities. Every subsequent census has recorded a steady shift from the country to the cities. In 1860 some sixty-five per cent were still in the country, and in 1900 thirty-eight per cent or thereabouts. Whatever may be assigned as the reason

for this cityward current of people, the most confirmed optimist can scarcely find in the last decade any new conditions in the country itself to reverse the flow, and probably never before in the history of the world have the lure and promise of cities so subtly and effectively snared the guileless country dweller. Witness the boards of trade and other commercial bodies, civic organizations, religious and educational associations, amusement activities, and every form of social expression that has been invented, each in a hundred different cities loosing a torrent of civic pride as with hand on heart they swear there was never another such metropolis. And in each case everybody is urged to come and stay and to judge for himself.

Speaking by and large the function of the open country is to produce food, clothing and raw materials for manufacture and trade, while that of cities is to manufacture and trade in these commodities. From the beginning of time the people of the country have demonstrated that they can live, somehow, without the ministrations of the town. But on the other hand the people of the town have never dared to risk the *contra* experiment, though we seem impatient to look into the matter.

In view of the splendid spirit and organization of thousands of unselfish people in this country who deeply concern themselves with the average city man's making-a-living problems, it is worth while to inquire if they are really serious, since in their activities they have almost entirely ignored the producing end which is the basic problem of everyone's life problems. Indeed not only have these constructive activities ignored country

life and its business, but they have so magnified the special problems of city life, and have provided for them on such splendid scale, as to withdraw practically all attention from the unsung woes of country life. And by their diversity and scope the institutions of the cities put institutional life on such a high plane as seems to have entirely discouraged this form of social expression in the country. It is public information, confirmed by the inquiry and report of President Roosevelt's Commission on Country Life and other authoritative agencies, that the people of the open country are woefully unorganized for any purpose; that their churches, schools and such organizations as do exist lack, for the greater part, both body and spirit; that there is little if any social life; and that in practice ambition and progress among country men and women are most generally denoted by their departure for the city.

It must be true that for every manufacturing and trading man surrounded by healthy social conditions in town, there should be a proportionate number of pro-

ducing men; or part of a man, in equally healthy conditions in the country.

Who is attending to this business?

Every national or local organization of persons working for the advancement of humanity, which is content to limit its activities within city gates, is pursuing a policy which may eventually perfect a manufacturing and trading scheme, but which makes absolutely no provision for putting it into effect through the production of raw material, and for sustaining it through the production of food and clothing.

We are engaged in a broad, lasting development of our national life, yet all roads lead to town, all action is there, all plans are city plans. In the United States the self-governing political unit is the county, each with a county-seat which is frequently a sizable town or city, and for a great part of them these counties are the country in miniature exhibiting within their limits to a greater or lesser degree most of the important, vital phases of our national life.

Who ever heard of a county plan?

JOTTINGS

Special Agent National Child Labor Committee.—The National Child Labor Committee has secured Miss Caroline E. Boone as special agent in the South. Her present field of work will be Maryland, Virginia and the two Carolinas. In addition to investigating conditions under which children are employed she will attempt to enlist the co-operation of the better class of employers, organize local forces in the different states and communities, and do publicity work.

Miss Boone is admirably adapted and equipped for her new work. She is of southern parentage, college trained and has already had considerable experience in investigating child labor conditions.

James Dunn Goes from Cincinnati to Wheeling, W. Va.—James Dunn, formerly assistant secretary of the Associated Charities, Cincinnati, has become general secretary of the newly organized Associated Charities of Wheeling, W. Va. Mr. Dunn graduated from Indiana University in 1905. He came directly to the Associated Charities of Cincinnati upon his graduation. During the first two years he acted as financial secretary and during the last two as assistant secretary. His change to Wheeling will give him an opportunity to develop the work in a most promising field.

America's Prison Association.—The American Prison Association meets this year in Seattle from August 14-19. The wardens', chaplains' and physicians' associations will hold conferences in connection with the main meeting. Complete programs will be announced later by the general secretary, J. P. Byers, Randall's Island, New York city. The following standing committees are scheduled to report: Criminal Law Reform Committee, Oscar K. Cushing, chairman, San Francisco, Cal.; Preventive and Reformatory Work, Corwin S. Shank, chairman, Seattle, Wash.; Prevention and Probation, Judge Ben B. Lindsey, chairman, Denver, Col.; Parole of Life Prisoners, T. D. Wells, chairman, Hartford, Conn.; Prison Discipline, John D. Hoyle, chairman, San Francisco, Cal.; Discharged Prisoners, C. D. Bare, chairman, Sardinia, O.

First Woman Inspector.—Boston has appointed its first woman sanitary inspector, Miss Elizabeth Goldstein, and the enthusiasm with which she has taken up the work promises to set a new pace for sanitary inspectors in that city. Women sanitary inspectors have for many years been common in England and other foreign countries, but owing to the fact that women do not lend themselves readily to the schemes of politi-

cians, they have not been employed in Boston. Miss Goldstein, however, was determined to win in the civil service examinations and to make herself felt as an inspector. She was successful in the examinations and is now going about her work with a degree of thoroughness somewhat novel among the inspectors. Miss Goldstein has a particular advantage in that she has been assigned to the North End where she has been connected as a social worker and in other ways for a number of years, and where she is well acquainted. She knows the district, understands the people, and their needs, and what can be done with them. This adds to her fitness, and to the promise of success for her work, which is already attracting favorable attention.

Postage Stamps as Philanthropic Agents.—

The latest adaptation of postage stamps to philanthropy is by the National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children. They are for a scholarship fund to enable the association to treat various atypical children at its institution at Watchung Crest, New Jersey. It will be remembered that this institution was founded by Dr. Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, several years ago, for the treatment of unusual children—children who, for nervous or physical reasons, were other than normal and yet were not feeble-minded in the sense of permanent defect. This was a field which Dr.

Groszmann had made peculiarly his own in his work for education in New York and which, by the segregation of the children in an institution where he could entirely control their environment, he planned to carry on more scientifically. Two years ago, the work was broadened out from that of treating children of parents who could afford such special care. An eleemosynary association was incorporated so that children could be admitted who from a scientific point of view would be most fruitful subjects for experiment, and from a humanitarian standpoint needed treatment most—this, quite regardless of their ability to pay. A scholarship fund was organized to this end, and the stamp scheme is the latest plan to increase the available resources to carry it out. Stamps may be obtained from Waldemar H. Groszmann, treasurer of the association.

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AUGUST 7, 1909

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SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
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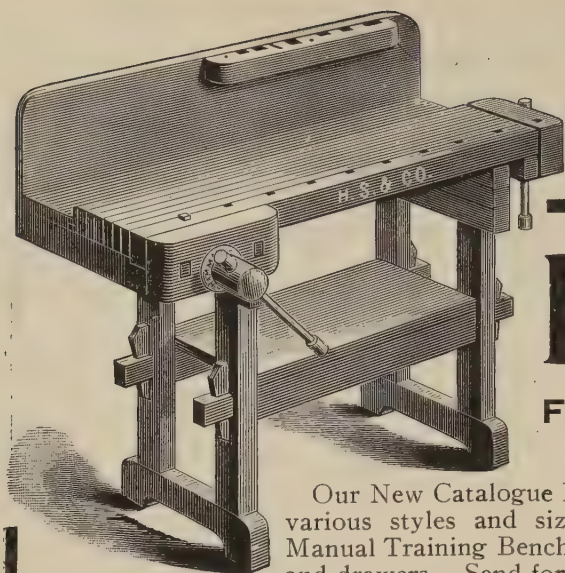
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

ESTABLISHING STANDARDS

If social workers are to accept and act upon the idea that their prime function is to overcome abnormalities and social maladjustments, so that ultimately existing normal standards may actually be enjoyed by all men, then it is obvious that it becomes very important to be able to judge correctly what are normal standards. Here we have need perhaps of another Matthew Arnold to tell us the precise "function of criticism at the present time." For in social work frank and judicious criticism is at least as important as it is in literature.

How are we to tell what are the actual normal standards of a given community? First of all, of course, by observation. Accurate, unprejudiced vision and a faithful report of the results of such observation is a good beginning. It is not difficult for any trained and sympathetic observer to find out what the members of a household consider essential to their welfare; what food they eat, what clothing they require for comfort and decency, what manner of houses they live in and how they are furnished, what importance they attach to health, recreation, leisure and the higher forms of enjoyment. In the dearth of definite information on these subjects it is surprising how far a very moderate amount of painstaking inquiry will go in affording material for speculation and even as a basis for serious remedial measures. It is desirable very greatly to extend such studies. They should be sufficiently uniform to make their results comparable, but the main thing is that they should be disinterested, free from any suspicion of ulterior partisan purpose, and scientific in conception and method.

The state and federal governments are the best of all agencies for such investigations because of their adequate resources and because they represent the entire people. Experience has shown, unfortunately, that the people are sometimes misrepresented in the interpretation and even in the collection of information of this kind by their official agents, but the remedy is in our own hands when there has come to be a general understanding of the matter. Such recent foundations as those established by Mr. Carnegie, Mr. Rockefeller and Mrs. Sage, especially the last named, which is exclusively for the improvement of living and social conditions, offer new possibilities for research. With resources almost as large as those likely to be devoted to this work by the government, and equally disinterested, they are pressing forward to a more complete understanding of the facts about social and living conditions. The existence of these great foundations and their vigorous prosecution of the larger undertakings need in no wise discourage individual efforts, which for certain kinds of inquiries have their distinct advantages. The most notable of all studies into family budgets and standards of living thus far made, those of the French min-

eralogist Le Play, represent the employment of the leisure of the life time of a college instructor for whom this study of his fellow men was a persistent avocation.

The need which we desire especially to emphasize, however, is not that of collecting information, important as it is, but rather that of trenchant and constructive criticism. This is a function in which the individual is everything and the greatest of endowments or the most magnificent of organizations counts for nothing. Of such criticism we have far too little. We have petty and carping criticism from the partisan whose cause perhaps is not advanced as he had hoped that it would be by the results of some inquiry. We have an abundance of the easy-going praise which flows from a vague general interest in a subject, without the experience, the scholarship, or the sound judgment, which would give substantial value to the commendation. Of genuinely discriminating discussion, which compares, sifts, tests, weighs judicially, and, by such high praise as may be deserved after such scrutiny, really gives substantial aid to a creditable undertaking, or with convincing demonstration brings to an abrupt end the pernicious influence of an ill-conceived, unscientific, and misleading investigation—of such discussion, independent, informed, courageous, and truthful, we are sorely in need.

Let us, however, recur to the fact that we are considering primarily not the criticism of books but the critical study of the standards of living of human beings. The natural place, the vital place, then, for sound criticism is in the study itself. No outside critic can possibly be in so favorable a position as the investigator himself, and the reviewer or expert whom he consults, with all the original data in hand, to know whether his facts are both true and typical, whether they correctly represent the condition which the investigator set out to study. Here also standards of comparison, acquaintance with similar studies, but above all the critical faculty, are essential. After results have been published there comes the opportunity for outsiders, but severe self-criticism and sympathetic and constructive criticism from confidential advisers, are fundamental.

We conceive it to be one of the functions of this journal to provide a forum for the frank and helpful criticism of social movements, and of researches in the field of social work. As yet this service has been rendered at best in a fragmentary and incomplete way, but as we are coming gradually to find ourselves in this respect, as our readers increase in number and our resources are enlarged, and especially as the occasions for criticism multiply, we look forward to a progressive development of such co-operation with all those who are finding out things which for the sake of the common welfare should be known, and with all those who are helping to do the things which this wider knowledge makes not only possible but inevitable.

THE COMMON WELFARE

A SANATORIUM FOR THE METROPOLITAN

If New York State Superintendent of Insurance Hotchkiss acts favorably upon an application now before him, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company will proceed at once to erect a tuberculosis sanatorium for the benefit of its employees and industrial policy holders.

For the first time in the history of "old line" insurance in the United States, a company has asked permission to erect an institution where its policy holders and employees may be treated for consumption. That application of the Metropolitan is in accord with the policy announced by Vice-President Haley Fiske at a meeting of the Association of Life Insurance Presidents last February. Mr. Fiske stated at that time that the company was ready to spend at least \$100,000 on a campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis, if a suitable and legal way for spending the money could be provided. Since that time the company has issued a pamphlet on the cure and prevention of tuberculosis to all of its industrial policy holders, and has formed its 11,000 agents into an organized corps of fighters.

The object of the proposed institution would be prevention as well as cure. The company argues, that if, for instance, from a family of six policy holders, one dangerous consumptive can be segregated, the net gain to the other policy holders of the company, in lessened premiums and increased bonuses will more than pay for the maintenance of a sanatorium. An option on a tract of land has been secured, and if Superintendent Hotchkiss gives his consent, the institution will be started at once.

Mr. Hotchkiss has announced that he will give his decision in about two weeks. Under the insurance laws of New York a life insurance company, may purchase "only such real estate as shall be requisite

for its convenient accommodation in the transaction of its business." The lawyers of the Metropolitan argue and have cited decisions to prove that the erection and maintenance of hospitals for employees by various industrial corporations furnish a precedent for insurance companies to do the same thing.

THE OHIO VALLEY WATER COMPANY OUTRAGE

Last January, almost in the face of the Pittsburgh Survey exhibit showing the great loss in life which Pittsburgh has for years dealt out to her citizens through unpardonable delays in safeguarding her drinking water, the daily papers of that city told shocking tales of criminal disregard for public safety in the towns down-river. The officials of the Ohio Valley Water Company, which supplies drinking water to the Boroughs of McKees Rocks, Bellevue, Avalon, West View, Ben Avon, and Emsworth, a total population of 32,000 people, suddenly found the water in their supply reservoirs running low. These supply reservoirs are ordinarily filled with a very pure quality of water by infiltration through the sand and gravel of the river bed, from wells drilled in the bottom of the Ohio to a depth of about twenty-seven feet.

To make up for this shortage, due to an unexpected drop in the river below the nine foot normal stage, the officials of the water company deemed it desirable to supplement their reduced supply with raw water taken directly from the Ohio River. To do this they made a six inch connection between the river and one of their wells. During the first twenty-four hours thereafter the water furnished from this connection was tolerably clear, but on the second night the river began to rise, washing from its banks much mud and filth that had accumulated dur-

ing the low period. The consumers noticed the condition of the water on the following day, and as no notice had been given to anyone, this was the first intimation they had of the entrance of any impurity into the supply.

In the meantime the unsuspecting consumers, who have thus far felt such an unusual degree of security about the purity of the water that they have not considered it necessary to boil or even filter it, had been drinking raw water taken from the river at a low stage, polluted with the sewage of half a million people. These sewers empty into the river at points varying from five miles to half a mile from the intake.

As a result there developed in less than three days a severe epidemic of a very debilitating intestinal trouble diagnosed as gastro-enteritis. According to an investigation made by the State Board of Health, there were 3,706 cases and three deaths. This report is considered by local authorities as very conservative, some placing the number of cases at no less than 6,000, with many cases of typhoid fever.

The officials of the company when asked by the state official why no public notice had been given of their action, simply said "there was not time." This statement was made in full knowledge that means of telephone communication were always at hand, and that the columns of the daily papers were always at their disposal. A more flagrant example of unawakened civic conscience, it is hard to find. As an editorial comment in a Pittsburgh daily says:

"The grocer who puts sand in his sugar, or mixes chicory in his coffee and sells the product for the pure article commits a minor offense in comparison with the water company which deliberately supplies sewage-laden fluid to its customers and then instead of issuing a warning against the poison, tries to cover up its deception."

And now the company is again being denounced by its patrons for the impure water it is giving to the people in this district. The company offers no explanation of the cause of the bad water, nor does it seem to fear the State Board

of Health, whose representatives have again been investigating the matter. Recent developments show that the water committee of Councils has recently come into possession of information that this is not the first offense of its kind, but that the water company has been pumping water direct from the river whenever the supply was short, ever since the company got its business under way.

CHILD LABOR IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Press reports from Washington indicate that the fears so loudly expressed a year ago about the disastrous effects of the District of Columbia child labor bill have not been realized. On the other hand, Commissioner Macfarland is reported as saying, "We have had sufficient experience under the child labor law since it went into effect July 1, 1908, to see that it has worked well on the whole, justifying its recommendation by the commissioners to Congress, and whatever opposition there was to the law originally seems to have largely disappeared."

When the law was passed, Congress failed to make an appropriation to provide for its enforcement, but two inspectors were appointed by the commissioners and appear to have been doing excellent work. Their report for the month of June shows only three complaints and that in general the employers of children are co-operating in the enforcement of the law. Two hundred and ninety-three business places are said to be employing 444 children under sixteen years of age. In addition to these, twenty newsboys and street vendors have received permits and badges.

This report is quite in keeping with those usually following the enactment of a child labor law. First the opposition cries against its terrible injustice. Second, the sensational press predicts the early repeal of the law. Third, the officials patiently pursue duties involved in the law's enforcement. Fourth, it soon appears that nothing more serious has happened than that a number of little children have been released from their industrial service and given an opportunity to study and play and grow.

BILLBOARDS TO PREACH TUBERCULOSIS

Successful negotiations were recently completed by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis with the Associated Bill Posters of the United States and Canada, when the latter body at its convention in Atlanta agreed to donate to the anti-tuberculosis campaign space on all of its 3,400 bill-boards. The bill posters are willing to hang up in all parts of the country at least a million posters, descriptive of the dangers of tuberculosis and the ways it can be prevented. This advertising, if paid for at regular rates would cost \$1,200,000.

In addition to this large gift, the bill printers have agreed to donate over \$200,000 worth of work. Efforts are also being made to secure enough paper and ink free of charge to carry on this posters campaign.

The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis will furnish the designs for the posters and will supervise their distribution in various parts of the country. This will probably be done in co-operation with the local anti-tuberculosis societies and bill-posters.

PRINTERS' FIGHT AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

Among workingmen there is no trade which suffers more from the ravages of tuberculosis than the printing trade. It is particularly appropriate, therefore, that the initiative in labor's warfare against the disease should come from New York Typographical Union No. 6. For some years this union has had a special committee, known as the health committee, dealing with this problem. Its members are John L. Cahill, Rockwell Kent, Joseph A. Gardner and James Tole.

One of the important things done recently in the campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis by this committee has been the issuing of a circular of information and its wide distribution among the printing trade. Printed attractively and bearing the double red cross, it reads as follows:

Don't spit on the office floor even if you haven't tuberculosis. Every chapel should pass a rule on this. Seventy per cent of the members of No. 6 examined last year had catarrhal affections, which are easily transmitted. Don't work in a badly ventilated, dirty, unsanitary composing room. The labor law prohibits it and your committee will enforce the section covering it if notified. Report any case of tuberculosis in your office. Everyone is in danger from a careless consumptive. Don't operate an un-piped linotype. You are taking a needless and perilous risk. An open smelter is equally dangerous. Your committee will correct these evils immediately, if notified. Don't allow the floor to be swept during working hours. Your health has the paramount right. Don't forget that one of every four in the I. T. U. death list dies of pulmonary affections; that the last United States census placed the second highest mortality from tuberculosis in the trade of printing, and that every thoughtful member has it in his power to alter these figures. If you suspect you have tuberculosis, see your physician and write the health committee. Both will assist you. Don't be afraid of a draught, if the window is open from the top and bottom. Fresh air is necessary every minute of the day in the average printing office. Everyone in our business should walk at least three miles in the open air every day. Few members of this union are without intimate knowledge of the waste incurred by tuberculosis. Tubercle bacilli are tangible enemies of all who work and should be persistently fought by sane living. Join a sick benefit society, preferably in your own office. There are more successful relief associations among printers than in any other craft, and they give help with self-respect.

Remember that the perfected labor union is the most forceful agent of the century in preventing tuberculosis. Short hours and high wages will accomplish wonders in exterminating any disease, physical or social. Demand the union label and strengthen your organization.

THE PRISON CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON IN 1910

At Paris on July 12 and 13 the International Prison Commission held its final sessions to make preparations for the Congress at Washington. The importance of the business brought a good attendance of members from all parts of Europe. Throughout the meetings and in the letters of those who could not be present, the first theme was an expression of sympathy and sense of loss on account of the death of Dr. Barrows. At the same time, and even out of re-

spect to his memory, all agreed that the plans for the coming congress, on which he had bestowed so much thought and labor, must be carried to a successful issue.

The day before the meeting a conference was held with the new commissioner, Prof. Charles R. Henderson, Mrs. Barrows and F. H. Mills being present and Dr. Guillaume, the general secretary, part of the time. The information and advice of the American envoys were of very considerable value in all the discussions.

After addresses on Dr. Barrows by Dr. Guillaume and M. Rickl de Bellye, of the Ministry of Justice of Budapest, Professor Henderson was introduced and elected president of the commission. On taking the chair he eulogized the late commissioner, stated the problems to be met and offered a plan of organization for the coming congress. This plan will be taken to Seattle for further study in conference with the committee of the American Prison Association and then the outlines will be filled in, the necessary modifications made and provisions decided for appointments of committees and executive officers.

It was the unanimous decision of the commission that the foreign delegates should meet in New York about September 17, make a journey of about two weeks to visit typical American institutions, and return to Washington for the congress about October 8. It was felt that the heat would be too oppressive for a trip and for a meeting in Washington at an earlier date than September 15. The Europeans have, from sensational reports, acquired a dread of the late summer in America. Some difference of opinion was developed on the question whether the congress should be held before the trip to institutions or afterwards, and this matter was left to the decision of the American committee.

The representatives of the French government invited the commission to a luncheon at the noon recess, while all met in the evening for dinner as the guests of the Americans. These genial and informal occasions gave all a fine opportunity to become acquainted, and at the close Professor Van der Aa, of Holland, most graciously declared that

if the hospitality was a sample of the American manner all the world would want to go to Washington in 1910.

It now remains for the friends of modern methods of dealing with crime to rally to the support of the American committee and unite in giving to organizers of the great congress of 1910 universal support.

MADISON'S PARKS AS INVESTMENTS

According to a citizens' investigating committee from ten to fifteen per cent of the increase in property values in Madison, Wisconsin, during the past sixteen years is attributed to the parks and drives. Madison criticised the action of the City Council because of the amount of money spent in this way. The council, on December 11, 1908, passed a resolution calling for a citizens' committee to investigate and report how much, in its best judgment, the property values had been increased by the work of the Madison Park and Pleasure Drive Association in conjunction with the city in securing parks, playgrounds, open spaces and drives.

The Park and Pleasure Drive Association was mentioned, for which it may congratulate itself, because in the past sixteen years it has agitated, in season and out of season, a comprehensive park development with proper connecting boulevards. It has not stopped at agitation but has, in great part, through private subscriptions, proceeded "to do things."

Its success has been so great that the citizens, through their government, have supported the movement. Finally, the kickers got to work. But no one withdrew. They decided to face the issue and see just where they stood. And this is what they found out:

The increase of valuation in Madison since 1893 is figured at \$12,239,879. Taking the mean of the estimate of the citizens' committee, twelve and one-half per cent of this, or \$1,529,984, is due to the parks, playgrounds and drives. This, on the basis of the tax rate for 1908, brings to the city a revenue of \$23,814.76 annually. The total annual cost of the parks, including interest on the invest-

ment, appropriation for maintenance and landscape architect's salary, is \$13,-707.16, leaving a net balance to the credit of the parks of \$10,017.60 as a basis for the kick. The kickers have made progress like the frog in Mark Twain's story and the citizens of Madison are happy.

But the committee did not content itself with a mere estimate of the monetary value of the parks. It discovered, as any open-minded observer might, that these properties have a distinct social value, which expressed itself to this effect:

They have been a substantial element in advancing the welfare of the people; they have bettered business, social, ethic, aesthetic and health conditions; the fact that they are owned by the people increases the enjoyment of the common life and the desirability of the city as a place of residence; they have stimulated among the residents a willingness to improve personal property; and, finally, their direct and indirect results have been to promote the general welfare and meet many of the unusual demands of modern city life.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL AND THE IMMIGRANT

Mr. Ward's article on the social centers of the Rochester public schools on another page of this issue is a large example of the extension of the school beyond the old traditional limits of book training. The latest development in socializing the schools comes from Boston, where the new North American Civic League for Immigrants, using that city as an experiment station, is co-operating with the public school authorities by giving, in several school buildings, a series of lectures on primary civics, first aid to the injured, hygiene, and prevention of disease to newly arrived aliens.

For the most part these lectures are illustrated by the stereopticon. The language is the simplest, whether English or spoken through an interpreter.

The promoters of the league believe that uniting the parent and the school surely tends to enhance the leavening influence of education. To minimize the prejudice against the compulsory school law and to inspire in aliens the idea that school training for the children means

more opportunity and in the end better citizenship, is the hope of the league. Its officers expect that the result of the vacation school lectures will be as marked and almost as far-reaching as was the series given by the league in the evening schools during the winter.

A LOST LETTER THAT FOUND ITS DESTINATION

From the mountains of western Maryland came a letter last week to the postmaster of Jersey City. The writer was trying to find "the man who called out the trains in Jersey City 2 years ago last February 9th in the afternoon." And this was her reason:

"Dear Sir:

"I want to find the man who cured himself of consumption by using Oil of ————. Do you remember a very sick man his wife 2 children & mother who missed connection & had to wait all afternoon for a train. You told my son & myself of your cure. I remember part of the directions which was, take one drop the first day, two drops the second day, & so on till it went up to 30 drops. Now I want to know what to do when the 30 drops have been reached. Does the directions say to continue the 30 drops each day or go back to one drop. This is what I want to know. I will be very grateful if you will write me the full directions, and send me as soon as possible. My son lived only 6 weeks after we got home. he did not try the ————. I felt he was too near gone. Now I have a daughter who is in need of help, and wants to try it. Hope you will get this letter. But if you should not, and it falls in the hands of anyone who knows of the treatment will please answer this. I will enclose stamp for an answer. Hope I may get it soon.

Very gratefully yours,"

The postmaster referred the appeal to the National Association for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis which has doubtlessly advised the writer about the efficacy of the "30 drops."

THE HUDSON RIVER DAY LINE

The Hudson River Day Line has called our attention to an incident cited

in an article in our issue of July 3, which conveyed a thoroughly erroneous impression. This we desire to correct.

We believe that the day line is of the cleanest and highest moral standing in every way. The business being entirely by day, the steamers are equipped with only a few day parlors, and no state-rooms, and a most rigid watch is kept on the parlors to be sure that they are rented only to respectable people in families and private parties. The boats do not run on Sunday, and there is no beer, wine, or liquor sold on board.

These boats have an excellent reputation with the better class of tourists and vacationists, and are largely patronized by those who want clean service and refined pleasure.

SELF-HELP AMONG THE NEGROES

MONROE N. WORK

Tuskegee Institut

One of the principal things in making the Negro a useful citizen is to teach him the art of helping himself. This end has been one of the chief aims of Tuskegee Institute. It is for this purpose that it carries on the more than thirty different extension activities for the Negroes' moral, material and intellectual improvement.

For a number of years Tuskegee has fostered local farmers' conferences in which the people in particular communities come together to be taught how to improve their farms, their homes, their morals, and their educational facilities. It is very gratifying to find that the members of these conferences are taking the initiative and are devising a number of ways to help themselves.

An example of this is the farmers' school of the Mt. Zion and St. John community, situated about fifteen miles from Tuskegee Institute. A number of the members of the local conference attended the agricultural short course which Tuskegee holds each year. These people decided that their community would be greatly benefited by such a course and so they got together in their local conference and worked out a plan

for a four days' session. The undertaking was very successful. Over 100 students consisting of fathers, mothers, sons and daughters were enrolled. On the first day the subjects How to Maintain a Good Garden During the Entire Year, and How to Plant, Grow and Maintain a Good Orchard were discussed. The subjects for the remaining time were: Care of Farm Animals and Farm Implements, Judicious Application of Home and Commercial Fertilizers, Need of Deep Plowing and Selecting Seeds.

For a number of years a county fair has been held at Tuskegee Institute in order to afford an opportunity for the people of the surrounding country to exhibit their products. The fair has done a great deal in enabling the people to have a better appreciation of the best grades of farm produce and showing them how successfully to raise these best grades. The women here also learned much concerning home work.

It is very interesting to see how the people are now beginning to hold community fairs. It was the privilege of the writer in the autumn of 1908 to attend one of these community fairs. It was conducted in a very creditable manner. The exhibits both in quality and quantity were very good. They included horses, mules, cows, hogs, cotton, rutabagas, sugar-cane, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, varieties of corn, fruits—dried, canned, preserved, and jellied—vinegars, home made wines, turnips, pumpkins, cushaws, gourds, water melons, peppers, peas, peanuts, beans, cabbages; collards, tomatoes, rice, fancy work, quilts, shirt waists, women's cloaks and needle work. One could not witness the tastefulness with which the exhibits were arranged, the fine quality of the vegetables and fruits and the friendly rivalry of the exhibitors, without seeing that the people were doing a great deal in educating themselves through the agency of the fair.

The young men of various communities are organizing themselves into clubs for their own and the communities' improvement. The following is an account of such a club:

The young men of Creek Stand community have organized themselves into a club. These young men are working in every



PROF. CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON.

The unremitting industry, the varied achievement, and the high position which entitle Professor Henderson to represent the United States on the International Prison Commission, worthily succeeding Dr. Barrows, need only to be named to demonstrate his singular fitness for the position. The National Prison Association recognized his leadership by electing him president in 1902. His widely used text book, *An Introduction to the Study of Dependents, Defectives and Delinquents*, published the year before may well have nominated him to that distinction. His *Modern Prison Systems*, 1907, and numerous penological reports and papers suggested his name only, by common consent, for the president's appointment to the international commissionership. The breadth of social intelligence which he has laid for the basis of his specialization is indicated by his editorship of the *American Journal of Sociology*, his presidency of the Twenty-sixth National Conference of Charities and Correction, his formative leadership in the United Charities of Chicago and his authorship of *Modern Methods of Charity*, *Industrial Insurance*, *Social Elements* and numerous other scholarly volumes and papers of practical import.

way possible to build up the community. Recently a meeting was held in the Creek Stand schoolhouse and the following subjects were discussed: Women's Work, The Young Men and the Community. After a thorough discussion of the subjects, a collection of twenty-seven dollars and eighty-five cents was taken. This amount was given by nine of the young men of the community. These young people are interested in what they are doing. They have their community at heart.

Among the most notable instances of self-help among the Negroes in the vicinity of Tuskegee has been what they have done to improve their educational facilities, especially in erecting school houses and lengthening the school terms. This work has required a great deal of self-sacrifice on the part of the people. In one school district in a single rally to raise money to erect a school building eighty-six persons contributed \$178.65, an average of a little more than two dollars each. In addition ninety dollars worth of work on the school building was contributed. In another community the people desiring to have a school house came together and in one meeting subscribed \$396 for this purpose. The meaning of this sacrifice will be appreciated when it is understood that these people who are subscribing a total of from \$500 to \$1,000 to erect a school building and lengthen their school term are very poor and the majority of them are renters.

A very striking example of self-help was displayed in a community about twenty miles from Tuskegee which three years ago had no school. Thirty-five women organized themselves into a school missionary society. At first each member paid a monthly fee of thirty cents. This, however, was not enough to meet the expense of paying the teacher and so the members solicited funds from the patrons and friends. In this way the teacher was paid but at a considerable sacrifice. The next year the women found a better way to raise money. Five acres of ground were set aside for a school farm, planted in cotton and voluntarily worked by the men. By this means the teacher was paid and there was a surplus fund to go towards erecting a building. Through the energy and perseverance of this band of women a per-

manent school was established, a neat, comfortable school building erected and the men were organized into a society for community betterment. What these Negro women without any special knowledge of co-operation have been able to do to improve this rural community is indicative of the spirit of self-help which is each day becoming more active among the Negroes of the South.

THE CHURCH, CHARITY, AND SOCIAL REFORM¹

JEFFREY R. BRACKETT

Director Boston School for Social Workers

Opportunities and duties of the church in social reform are topics heard much today. The church is challenged by some ardent reformers to prove by such work if it be really the church of power or not. The Presbyterians have a Department of Church and Labor, with a special minister to reach working men, and are now trying also to get knowledge of conditions and needs of recent immigrants. The Congregational churches have a national committee on industrial organization. The Methodist Federation for Social Service has published its first leaflet on Unemployment and Relief. The American Unitarian Association has established a department of social service with a secretary aiming especially to promote co-operation with existing agencies for charity, civics and industrial advance. The last New York diocesan convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church provided a permanent social service commission with several local branches, chiefly to bring about better understanding between church and labor, employers and employes. The Federal Council of Churches recently held in Philadelphia, representing thirty-three denominations and eighteen million communicants in the United States, adopted with enthusiasm a long list of resolutions for specific reforms in conditions of living and labor, for a standing commission on the church and social service. And in England, the great councils of the Anglican communion have spoken strongly

¹ This is the first of a series of signed editorials on the church and social reform that will appear in *THE SURVEY*.



SIR FRANCIS CAMPBELL.

An American, with knighthood conferred by King Edward, himself, blind, yet founder of the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind in London. Sir Francis Campbell is today the dean of the workers for the sightless. While a boy he lost his sight and when ten years of age went to Nashville where a small school for the blind was located. Here, in spite of the fact that he was considered unqualified for the study of music, he practiced in secret with the help of his fellow pupils until, gaining the approbation of the music instructor, he became one of the most proficient musical students. He prepared himself for Harvard and passed his examinations with credit, but owing to financial reverses he was obliged to go back to his native state to teach music and remained there until his abolition sentiments necessitated his return to the North where he was employed by the Perkins Institution for the Blind as musical director from 1860-1870. In 1871 he went to Europe to make a study of the methods employed in institutions on the continent and there he learned of the lack of adequate facilities for the higher education of the sightless in England. With the co-operation of English leaders, the present Royal Normal College with its sixteen acres of beautiful grounds was founded. For two special reasons will Sir Francis Campbell be distinguished in his work for the blind: First, for insistence on adequate physical training in and out of doors; and second, for requiring the best quality of instruction. Cycling, rowing, swimming, skating, etc., were for the first time introduced into the curriculum of a school for the blind at Norwood. The teachers are the best that can be secured and the instruction is based on the theory that "if the blind are to compete with the seeing they must have as good if not better instruction."

on the duty of the church in social reform. At the same time, comes the so-called Emmanuel Church movement of Boston, the psychotherapeutic treatment by the church. What is the meaning of all this? Is it an awakening to the duty of the church as often proclaimed—but not always followed? Is it an answer to the plea that the church must undertake new duties to justify itself today. How shall we relate all this to the modern movement for the use of special knowledge, for differentiation between professions and expert services?

Surely, the church should strive hard to rouse men to more interest in, and more knowledge of, industrial and social conditions, that ills may be done away with and progress made. As helps to this, may be mentioned special Sunday noon and evening meetings such, for instance, as have been held in the Church of the Ascension, New York, or in Mt. Vernon Church, Boston, with addresses by judicious persons who are familiar with conditions of living and labor. So church and denominational organizations may well have particular committees to keep in touch with leading industrial interests and moral movements, to help clergy and people interpret the special knowledge and aspirations of those interests. But the aim should be to listen to knowledge from various sources and points of view. Significant indeed was the action of the national committee of the Congregational churches in changing its title from a committee on labor to committee on industrial organization, in order to indicate more clearly the duty of listening alike to employer and employe, to capital and labor. Such an attitude will not, of course, be satisfactory to those who wish the church to become the propagandist of a particular panacea. There are, from time to time, conditions and reforms which should be specifically preached in our churches, for Christian people to consider thoughtfully in making up their duty as citizens and men. But, generally speaking, the church should not try to define details of method. It will do its part best if it rouses men to try to live religiously—to love mercy, to do justice, and to walk humbly

with God. That is its particular work, which is as useful today as ever, and will be tomorrow! The clergy can find no better task than thus serving the church inspirationally.

Said a man of much experience to the National Conference of Charities and Correction: "The evils against which we contend, and the suffering which the conference seeks to alleviate, are due directly or indirectly to unrighteousness of life: and a revival of righteousness would do more to check their growth than all the effort in the way of benevolent work, which we are able to put forth." In a great railroad strike in this country, the men of a New England railroad were asked to join the strike sympathetically, but they refused. Their reason was their loyalty to the man who happened to be their superintendent. That man did much to prevent a general strike throughout New England, and to restore industrial peace beyond. He was able so to do because his men had confidence in him as one who was "open-minded and square." To increase the number of such righteous men, in all interests of life, is the highest social service.

There is one very practical way in which churches can often make for social advance—by joining together as a neighborhood force in a fight against manifest evil conditions which aroused public opinion can wipe out. This has been well done in particular localities in preventing the existence or the spread of liquor saloons. Such co-operation may lead to a better appreciation of the value of neighborhood action in which persons of all creeds and no creeds may join heartily. Some philanthropic undertakings of individual churches might well be shifted to that broader basis of neighborhood work.

The cry of the institutional church is that it should minister to the whole man. The appeal of common sense is that the various needs of men should be met by those particular agencies best fitted to fill them, by experience and knowledge. The church may well maintain directly such agencies as are plainly a part of its own work of spiritualizing persons. But growth of knowledge and the complexity of our life make specialization impera-

tive. The duty of specialization within reasonable bounds in church as elsewhere is well shown by the real significance of psychotherapy in the church. That movement should teach doctors and clergy alike to insist on more thoroughness in treatment of this complex being, man, in physical or mental distress; and therefore to value diversity of gifts in doctor and clergyman, used in sympathetic co-operation. Special knowledge and co-operation should be the watchwords. The minister will be more effective in pastoral advice because the selected physician cares for the body. The needs of today in psychotherapy are to be met in the light of knowledge of today. What was done in the early church or in the Middle Ages has nothing to do with it.

Modern preventive medicine is teaching, among many lessons, that the warfare against disease is not limited to medical men. If infant mortality is to be checked, many mothers must be interested and instructed to do their part; and further back, employers of working women must be prevented from employing them at times when the lives of mother and infant may be injured by work. The campaign against tuberculosis depends largely for its success on the knowledge of the man in the street and in the factory. So in the grave matter of hygiene of sex there is the duty of the parents, as well as of family physicians, to give proper instruction to the young. In all such matters as these, the minister has a duty in rousing the people to do their duty.

The church can also make an important practical contribution to social advance in taking the right attitude as to charity. Let a church leave to charitable agencies the material aid for persons strangers to it; and urge parishioners to become generous givers to and workers with such agencies. Let it preach the value of personal service without patronage; of individual efforts to share opportunities, knowledge and friendliness; the responsibility of consumers for their purchases, of rich persons for their investments. Most of all, should the clergy strive to bring the spirit of charity into church life. There must be less dis-

tingtion between the pews and the gallery seats, if our churches are to be indeed households of faith. Rich and poor, educated and untutored, are alike needy in the fundamental virtues of living. To help men to those fundamental virtues is after all the chief duty of the church.

FOR SUMMER READING

Reviewed by BELLE LINDNER ISRAELS

In these days of exodus from city streets to the commuter's paradise, books on the care and development of modest rural possessions have great value. In the most recent publications of this kind a tendency to be practical on the level of the poor, ignorant, new suburbanite has been manifest.

Two books that meet two kinds of need for such people are *Four Seasons in the Garden*¹ by Eben E. Rexford and *The Small Country Place*² by Samuel T. Maynard. Mr. Rexford writes his book for the amateur gardener, and he has put it into simple language, carefully defining his terms and subdividing and classifying so that the specific assistance desired is easily found. The author touches the civic note in his final chapters containing practical suggestions for rural and village improvement societies. Everything in the book is stated with an authority that carries conviction. It is full of suggestions for growing things. *The Small Country Place* has less to do with the amateur gardener and is intended for the small farmer. The monthly calendar found at the back of the book is a sort of manual of tactics for the gentleman farmer. It is very simple and the author treats of every subject relating to the cultivation of a real country home—from furnace heat and cabbages to concrete walks, the swarming of bees and the growing of fruits, vegetables and live stock.

¹*Four Seasons in the Garden* by Eben E. Rexford, Philadelphia, 1909, J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 307. Price \$1.50 net. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

²*The Small Country Place* by Samuel T. Maynard, Philadelphia, 1909, J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 320. Price \$1.50 net. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

The illustrations in both books help out the text very materially, all being from photographs.

When the settlement children have their outings or when the "flower shows" come their way it would double their pleasure to have *Wild Flowers Every Child Should Know*¹ by Frederick William Stack in the hands of club leader or teacher. The book is among the simplest of its type. The flowers are classified according to colors, and the colored plates are divided to illustrate varying classifications. All the common names of the flowers are given, and the most familiar wild flowers are carefully illustrated. It gives one a thrill of pleasure to meet one's old friends in pictures and then to be able to find out things about them. Black-eyed Susan, golden-rod, toad-flax, milkweed, wild carrot and even skunk cabbage are all in the pictures, with the humble dandelion, friend of even the city child, as a frontispiece. A truly charming book accomplishing its lovable purpose.

*Birds About Us*² is not easy reading for the amateur. It is difficult to find one's way in the book even though it is quite profusely illustrated. The chapters are arranged as a series of discussions and although the book is indexed it has no color plates and will probably be most appreciated by those who have some previous acquaintance with bird books and experience in identifying our feathered friends.

An interpreter of a world all too often misinterpreted fulfills a mission. Virginia Tracy does this in *Merely Players*³—*Stories of Stage Life*. The dozen stories vibrate with humanity and are full of real people. The actor is a thing

apart. His temperament is peculiar in its childlike absorption in his own interests. The author does not shun the foibles of the profession, out with a loving hand she shows them forth. The *Tameless Team* and a *Danger of Delay* thrill with the suspense of reality. They are almost cruel. The *Lotus Eaters* is perhaps the best picture of the bourgeoisie of the profession, while the *Interpretress* tells something of the nobility. The book has quality that is unmistakable. It is readable everywhere; and a delightful companion for a vacation long or short.

Seeing that *Old Lady Number 31*⁴ by Louise Forsslund concerns itself with the inmates of a home for the aged, the book might be expected to have some features of social interest. It hasn't.

The old time paper covered novel has seemingly gone out of existence. Time was when no publication of merit appeared without its accompanying edition in paper for buyers of moderate means. There was also a whole class of writers for special "libraries" of paper covered volumes. To take their place books which would ordinarily have been thought good enough for cheap paper editions, now retain the cheap paper inside and have cloth on the outside. In this class is *The Winning Chance*⁵ by Elizabeth Dejeans. It holds interest by its melodramatic plot and very obvious appeal to those in search of sensation.

It does one thing well; the writer has the absolute courage of her convictions and she does not shirk the inevitable result of the circumstances in which her heroine finds herself, even though it necessitates her writing a book which in its realism is not fit for the young person.

¹*Wild Flowers Every Child Should Know* by Frederick William Stack. New York, 1909, Doubleday, Page and Co. Fixed price \$1.20.

²*Birds About Us* by C. C. Abbott. Philadelphia, 1909, J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 288. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

³*Merely Players—Stories of Stage Life* by Virginia Tracy, New York, 1909 The Century Company. Pp. 326. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

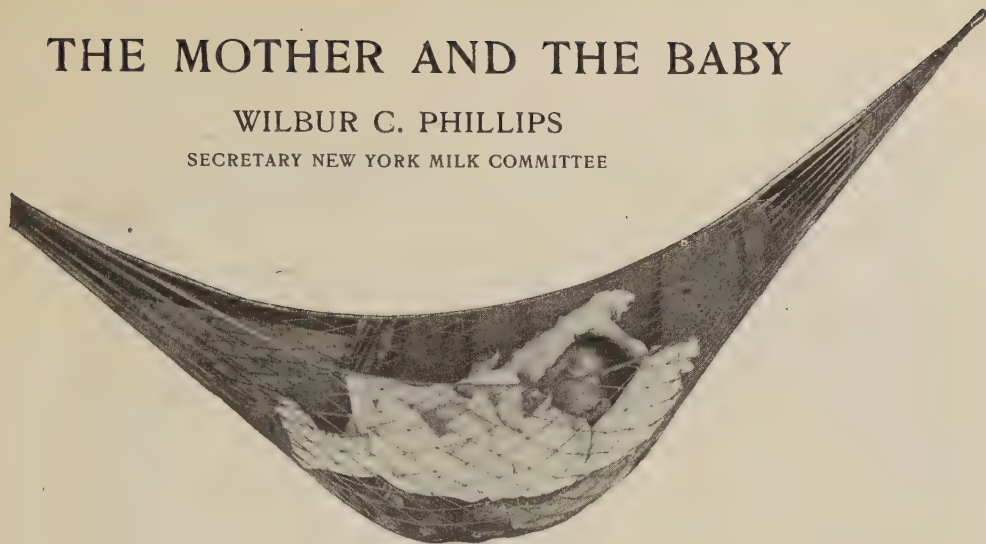
⁴*Old Lady Number 31* by Louise Forsslund. New York, 1909, The Century Company. Pp. 275. Price \$1. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

⁵*The Winning Chance* by Elizabeth Dejeans. Philadelphia, 1909, J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 318. Price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the office of THE SURVEY.

THE MOTHER AND THE BABY

WILBUR C. PHILLIPS

SECRETARY NEW YORK MILK COMMITTEE



The problem of the poor mother and her infant is by no means new. For years it has been the object of serious concern to governments and municipalities, and has won the attention of physicians, philanthropists, milk dealers, sanitarian and social workers, not only in this country, but in France, Germany, England, and other nations of Europe. It is only within recent years, however, that the great mass of people has awakened to the fact that hundreds of thousands of infants are dying needlessly each year, and has begun to take active steps to save their lives.

Numerically to picture the problem of infant mortality is, at the best, unsatisfactory. To the expert, as well as layman, statistics convey little real impression of the suffering and pathos involved in these needless deaths. Reduced to comparative terms, however, the situation changes. Even figures now cause one to shudder; for other dread diseases shrink into insignificance when the resulting loss of life for any given year is contrasted with deaths among babies from the first to the twelfth month of their existence.

Last year, it is estimated, 150,000 deaths resulted from tuberculosis in the United States. These deaths covered the whole span of life from infancy to old age, and occurred in spite of long efforts and the expenditure of large sums of money.

Although we have no accurate figures as to the number of babies born annually in the United States, a conservative estimate would be 2,500,000, of which certainly fifteen per cent or 375,000 perish during their first year. In 1908, in New York city, 16,230 infants died during the first year. The excess of these deaths, which, as will be shown later, are largely preventable, over deaths from all other causes at any other equal period of life, is shocking.

From birth, down to the tenth year, the mortality rate declines constantly. It is highest during the first week, falls somewhat during the second week, is fairly constant the third week, and then falls more or less steadily to the twelfth month of life. The enormous death rate among infants during the first three months is due almost entirely to congenital debility, malformation, atrophy and other results of immorality, unwholesome social conditions and physical degeneration. One-third, approximately, of the remaining deaths are caused by bad milk, improper feeding, etc., and the other two-thirds by casualties and those



Photographs by Frederick D. Greene.

ordinary ills of infancy 'which may almost wholly be prevented by the exercise of reasonable intelligence and care.

The importance of pure milk in reducing infant mortality, although worthy of grave consideration, has, up to the present time, been over emphasized; in fact, it has withdrawn attention from other factors equally important, probably on account of the grim manner in which the hand of death flays down the children of the tenements in the congested portions of all American cities during the hot months.

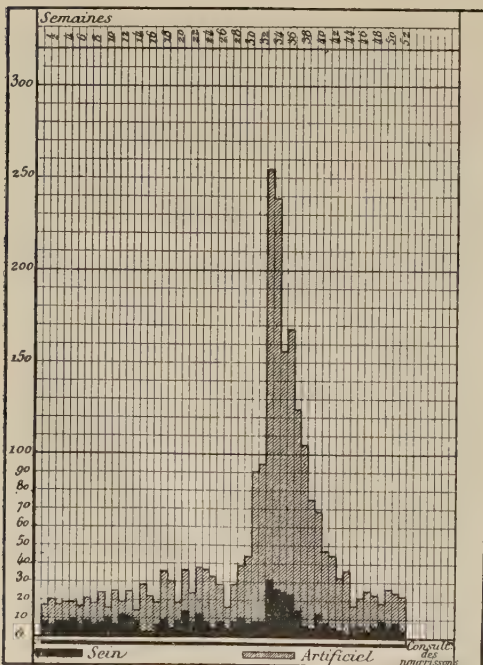
The tragedy is well pictured in the French chart, familiar to every child specialist, called the Eifel Tower. Here we have a contrast in morbidity between children suckled and those fed upon artificial food. Among the former the ratio of deaths remains comparatively constant until we approach July and August when it rises to a considerable but not startling degree, falling shortly afterwards and remaining, as at first, until the closing of the year. With the artificially fed infant, however, it is always subject to leaps and bounds. When July is reached, the leap is frightful, spouting up like a geyser of human blood. Fif-

teen bottle-fed babies die on an average in Paris to one breast-fed infant; while in Berlin recent reports show the percentage to be even as high as twenty to one. Recently Dr. Joseph L. Winters of New York, pictured the situation truthfully when he said:—"No matter how dark the tenement, how foulsome the street, how unsanitary the home or how sickening the conditions in which the child is raised, an infant, fed at the breast of a healthy woman, runs little risk of death. No medicine, no care or treatment, no proprietary food, will guarantee the life of a sick infant in the summer time. There is one remedy and one alone. That is, that the infant should be fed as God intended it to be."

But although many of us realize, and others are coming to realize, that the breast-fed baby is comparatively immune from death, the fact nevertheless remains that thousands upon thousands of infants all over the world, are unable to obtain maternal nourishment.

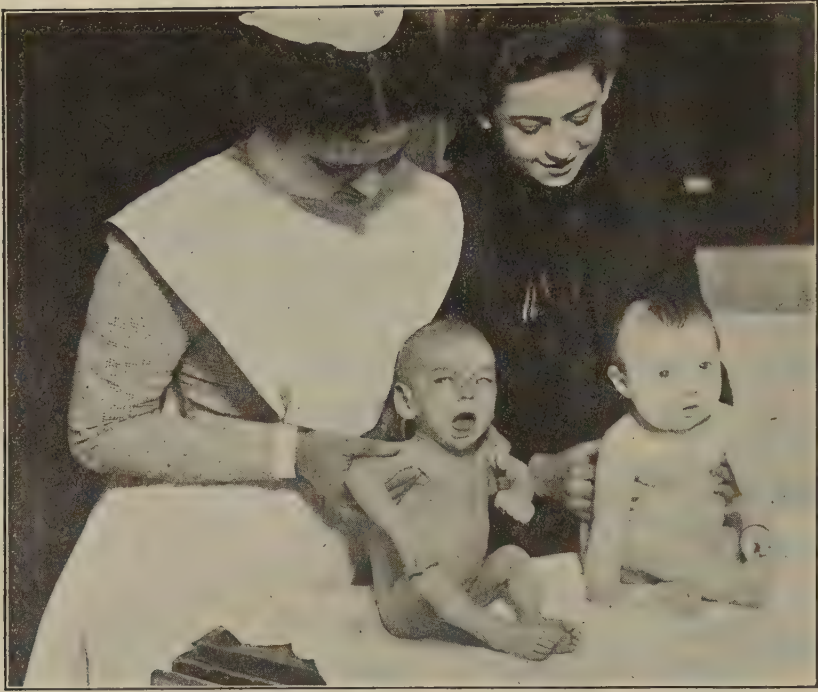
The New York Milk Committee in Manhattan Island, is feeding in the neighborhood of 750 infants. A careful statistical estimate, based upon the ratio of infants fed in its depots to the total number of infants in the areas included by them, extended to all the varyingly congested districts of the island, shows that in Manhattan, 12,500 mothers of the poorer classes (and no one knows how many of the middle classes) are forced to rely upon artificial feeding for their infants. The two main reasons for this maternal impotency, are physical disability, due to improper nourishment and disease, and industrial employment, due principally to abject poverty. Added knowledge and intelligence, not only on the part of the corporation and the man at its head and the careless spendthrift; but also for the tenement house mother, for whom much is being done, but who, through sheer ignorance, nullifies the efficacy of material relief and kindly effort—added knowledge and intelligence, I say, must be created before the problem of infant mortality can be satisfactorily solved.

The beginning of this work already has been made. Seventeen years ago, Nathan Straus, in New York city, began





AFTER THE CONSULTATION.
A typical group of mothers on the Lower East Side.



"BEFORE AND AFTER."

his memorable campaign against impure milk. Splendid have been the results achieved but, as concerns the decrease of infant mortality, Mr. Straus attacks only one phase of the problem. Pure milk is only one factor. More important than to supply a substitute for breast milk is to encourage breast feeding and render it possible—to remove the conditions of undernourishment and employment, which prevent women from nursing, and to educate mothers to realize, not only the importance of maternal nursing, but also the value of sanitation, infant feeding, infant hygiene, and the proper care of their infants and of themselves.

It was with this idea in mind that the New York Milk Committee in June, 1908, opened seven milk depots in New York city from which is sold certified milk from what probably is one of the best dairy herds in the United States—the Tully Farms herd.

Each depot is in the charge of a group of volunteer physicians under a senior physician elected by them. These physicians examine the babies at weekly classes, weigh them, prescribe their ex-

act feedings and educate the mothers by talks on infant feeding and infant hygiene patterned after the well known consultations of nourishment of France. Trained nurses, employed by the committee, supervise the distribution of milk, assist the doctors at the classes, and, by visiting the homes see that the mothers actually carry out what they are told to do. At the close of each day, these nurses telephone their exact milk orders for the day following to the central laboratory, which is generously provided by the Sheffield Farms—Slawson Decker Milk Company—and the next morning before eight o'clock, the milk, properly prepared and refrigerated, is delivered at each station.

The results have been wonderful. Sickly, emaciated children, hardly human in appearance, have become in a few months fat and rosy. Overworked mothers, who scarcely had had a night's sleep since the birth of the child, have become rested and refreshed. In the Henry Street Depot alone more than one-third of the babies who are now alive and in healthful condition were on the point

of death, when they were first brought in. In Cannon street, the committee is feeding nearly 200 babies, most of whom were in bad condition when found. At the last consultation only one with a severe cold was failing to improve.

In one of the consultations at Bloomingdale Guild thirty-two babies are enrolled. The average age at which they were brought was twenty-five weeks and two days. The average weight was thirteen pounds six and four-tenths ounces, whereas the regularly accepted estimate for a normal child of that age is fifteen pounds eight ounces. Thus the average weight of these thirty-two babies was two pounds two ounces below the normal. At the end of fifteen weeks and three days, their average weight was eighteen pounds one and nine-tenths ounces, whereas the normal weight for infants at this age is seventeen pounds eight ounces. Thus the thirty-two babies fed at this one consultation at the Bloomingdale Guild Depot, were nine and nine-tenths ounces over weight.

At St. Cyprian's Chapel, Mrs. J. W. Johnson, wife of the rector of the church, told me that before the committee's work began in that neighborhood, her husband had buried, on an average, one colored baby every other day throughout the year. Since June 15, 1908, she said, he had buried only six children.

Given a whole year in which the 750 infants now being fed at the committee's depots, would have been exposed

without them to the dangers of ignorance, impure milk and the other concomitants of poverty, I think it is safe to say that the saving of lives among them amounted to fifty per cent. Extending this estimate to the 12,500 babies needing similar care and assistance in New York city, and considering that last year the deaths under one year in Manhattan was 9,000, it can readily be seen that a saving of life equal to fifty per cent of the 12,500 would be an enormous reduction of infant mortality for the island as a whole.

What is true for New York city, is of course true for the entire country. The saving of lives, important as that is, is only one of many results accomplished. Equally important are the prevention of suffering and misery, the raising of the standard of intelligence of whole families and communities and the starting of young lives on a sound physical basis.

Reviewing the situation as it is naturally one is led to inquire, "How shall we face this problem?" To such an inquiry there is a definite answer. In the first place clean milk must be provided. This preventive of infant mortality is the most easily supplied, and therefore must be considered first. Where money is not obtainable for certified milk, the milk must be pasteurized. Similarly where money is lacking to prepare individual prescriptions, suited to the exact needs of each baby, wholesale modifications, prepared on a commercial basis, must be secured. Under all circumstances the most urgent problems must be under-



GAINED TEN OUNCES IN ONE WEEK.

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THE REAL SOCIAL CENTER OF THE MILK DEPOT AND COMMITTEE.

A back yard consultation at the union settlement.

this was that she was ashamed to show her child—dry, leathery and quite like a little old mummy—to the other mothers. Necessity, however, got the better of her at last and she not only came, but in sheer desperation followed the doctor's instructions carefully. The result was that in fifteen weeks Barry's condition, as shown by the accompanying record chart, leaped up from bad to perfect, where it rests to-day. In this way the milk depot lost a modified milk customer, but saved the life of Barry O'Shea.

What was done for Barry has been done in the case of many other mothers. When breast feeding has been found to be impossible, as it often is, they have been taught the value of many other things; of keeping the milk cold; of feeding the babies regularly; of throwing the deadly "pacifier" away; of peeling off the long red bands of flannel which swathe and infest the little bodies with prickly heat; of realizing that when a baby cries something is usually the matter with it; and of trying intelligently to discover what the matter is.

Twenty-nine doctors, in addition to the nurses, tell the mothers about these things at the weekly classes held in connection with the committee's depots. So great has been the interest, that sisters, aunts, grandmothers, "little mothers," rich women and poor, have attended the consultations and now in many quarters are demanding similar instruction themselves.

But while all mothers (and many fathers too) no matter what their station in life must be educated properly before infant mortality can be reduced, the need and desire for this education increases in direct ratio as we descend from the extreme rich to the extreme poor. For the wealthy mother there is always the expert specialist. For the middle class mother paid instruction must be provided, either by institutions or by itinerant teachers, of whom there is a great dearth at the present time. For the mother, handicapped by ignorance and all the evils of poverty, instruction, at least until times change, must be provided free.

In this campaign, the milk depot is of fundamental importance, as it attracts

and holds women whom no individual or other agency can reach. Poorly organized depots will not meet the problem. Co-operative depots must be the rule,—co-ordinating the work of doctors, nurses, milk dealers, relief societies, and all individuals and agencies interested in saving the lives of infants.

The economics of the situation thus become apparent. Many depots, supported at present by philanthropy, dabble with medicine, relief, statistics, and milk distribution, wasting much time, effort and money because of ignorance and inexperience. Take for instance the matter of selling milk below cost. If Mrs. A. contributes \$100 to a milk depot and discovers that her neighbor Mrs. B., a well-to-do woman, is obtaining for five cents a quart, a milk which is costing the milk depot fifteen cents a quart and, to obtain the loss of ten cents a quart on which, the milk depot is compelled to ask assistance from her and other contributors, naturally she is displeased. Obviously, the only right thing to do is to sell milk to Mrs. B. at a fair price. If, however, Mrs. B. can obtain milk from the depot at a fair price, every other woman in the neighborhood able similarly to pay for it, should be allowed to do so. This forces the depot to commercialize its business. Now a milk de-

pot which keeps open only from 9 A. M. until one o'clock, as is the case with most philanthropic depots, and which is run below its maximum capacity, cannot long stay in business. In order to be self-maintaining, the depots must keep open at all times; in order to attain perfection they must have capital behind them. To maintain infants' milk depots therefore, is not a problem for philanthropists having no knowledge of milk matters, but for milk dealers co-operating with philanthropists. In every community there are progressive milk men anxious to take up new lines of business, to accommodate the public, and to remedy conditions so far as they are able. These milk dealers must have co-operation and encouragement. Relief societies must say to them, "Here, produce this milk, modify it, sell it either in your own stores or in space which we will let you have in our settlements, hospitals, etc., and if any mother comes to you who cannot pay all or part of the price, send her to us; we will investigate the case, and if she is worthy, we will honor your bills for her supply." Contributors who support the milk philanthropy, will then know that each cent they give is going to people who need it; that pauperism is being discouraged; that where need exists, it is being met; and that in all cases justice is being done.

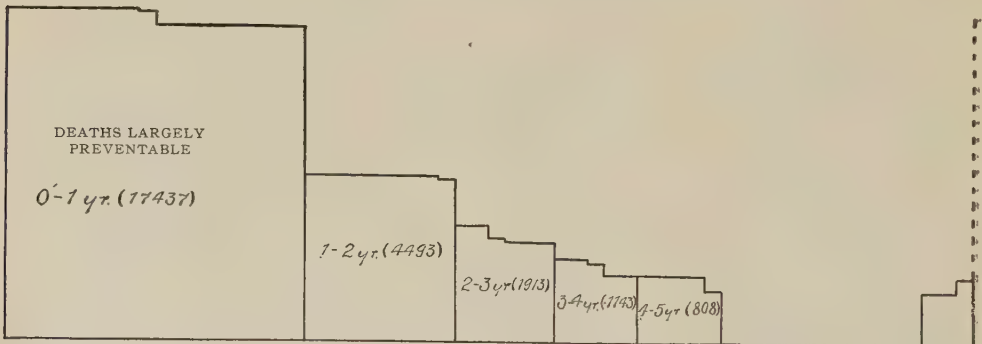


CHART 1.—Mortality in New York City, in 1907, of children under 5 years of age. The total number of deaths in 1907 was 72,205; of those under 5 years, 25,794; over 5 years 46,411. The square at the right represents the average deaths per year of age of all persons over 5 years of age.



CHART 2.—Average deaths per age for persons of different age groups. The figures in the upper line denote the average deaths per year for each group; those in the lower line denote the total deaths in each group.

Just as relief societies should co-operate with milk dealers so should milk dealers and relief societies co-operate with doctors and health authorities, in providing the medical, instructional and "follow-up" work for those mothers who patronize the stores. Connected with the distribution of milk, nurses and physicians constitute a big commercial asset, as they attract to milk depots mothers who, under other circumstances, would either fail to purchase milk or would obtain milk of an inferior grade. Almost any milk dealer could afford for the sake of this advertisement, to provide space in his store or a separate room connected with it, where doctors and nurses could carry on instructional work. Or if he did not feel that he could afford to do this, rent, chargeable to philanthropy, could be placed upon the space or room used. Many settlements, hospitals and other institutions on the other hand, could well afford to give quarters in their buildings where milk dealers could dispense milk, thus relieving the institution of the task and placing a supply within easy reach of those whom it is wished to reach. For this co-operative arrangement there are many precedents.

In all this work, the important thing is to distinguish clearly between business and philanthropy, for only then will the money of contributors be conserved and the greatest amount of good possible be done.

Ultimately, in many cities, nurses will probably be provided by the health department. Physicians, keenly interested as they are in problems of dietetics, particularly infant feeding, will probably be willing to give their services free. Some day it is to be hoped that doctors be paid for this work, for many believe the time will come when physicians will be paid to keep people well rather than to cure them when they are ill.

In different cities the plan will work out differently. But the fundamental principle of co-operation, of furnishing instruction, medical supervision and material assistance will remain the same. No one agency, no one set of men, no one department, organization, or society, can of itself or himself solve the problem of infant mortality. All must work together, each doing his own task expertly and relying upon others for the rest. In this way only is the solution of the problem possible.



A PROBLEM FOR THE MILK COMMITTEE:
Twins and triplets in the same family.



STRAWBERRY FIELDS AND PICKERS.

“STRAWBERRIES—STRAWBERRIES”

ELLEN N. LA MOTTE

TUBERCULOSIS NURSE INSTRUCTIVE VISITING NURSE ASSOCIATION OF BALTIMORE

Every summer an army of people goes out from Baltimore into the surrounding counties to pick berries, beans, tomatoes and similar crops for the truck farmers. These people are chiefly foreigners—Poles, Roumanians and Lithuanians, who leave their occupations in the city to work at berry picking while the season lasts, ordinarily for two or three months. They migrate into the country by families; the men, women and older children work, and of course, the younger children and the infirm cannot be left behind. It must be borne in mind, therefore, that when the number of pickers on any given farm is mentioned, this does not include the large contingent of non-workers, from one-third to one-fourth as many, whose presence, though not recognized in making up the count, plays an extremely important part in the manner of life of the people while they are in the country.

The farmers who employ these pickers provide them with rough shacks or shanties. The workers buy their own supplies, usually coming to town once a week and on Saturdays long processions of their wagons may be seen slowly

crossing the long bridge and coming down Light street.

The necessity for an investigation of conditions in these camps was first brought home to the writer in the course of her occupation as tuberculosis nurse. Every spring a large number of the consumptives under her observation left the city to spend several weeks or months at work in the fields, living in the same camps with the others. In response to efforts to find out whether the conditions there were advisable for tuberculous patients, they always advanced the fact that there was plenty of fresh air, and that they were out in it most of the time, but nothing further could be elicited. On the other hand, the information obtainable from other sources consisted entirely in vague but disquieting statements that living conditions in the camps were “awful.” It was clear, therefore, that the only way to get at the facts was to observe them for oneself.

Two investigations have been made by the writer, one early in June, 1908, the other during the present year. Each expedition lasted nearly a day, the same ground was covered both times, and in

this way the impressions and material of the first visit were reinforced and supplemented on the second. Five farms in Anne Arundel county were visited, all within a fourteen mile radius of Curtis Bay. Before leaving the bay several wagons came in from the country loaded with crates of strawberries, and from the drivers we got some useful information. They told us that there were between twenty-five and thirty thousand pickers in the fields—and because of "bad times" the farmers had no difficulty in getting all they needed. We also learned of three farms, all within a few miles of Curtis Bay, on one of which forty pickers were employed, on one other two hundred, and on another two hundred and fifty.

A small farm employing but a few pickers, both white and colored was first inspected. Two shanties some distance apart were provided for the two classes of workers. We did not visit the house for the Negroes, which was locked, while they were in the fields. The shack for the white pickers was of rough boards, forty feet long by thirteen wide, with a roof eight feet high at the sides and twelve at the peak. At one end was a narrow door, and on one side there were three windows, two feet square. The sashes, which might have been movable, were nailed fast. Inside we found partitions reaching almost to the roof, dividing the room into four stalls with a common passageway at the back, just as in a stable. These partitions were of rough boards and three of the stalls were lighted by the windows referred to. Each compartment was fenced in across the entrance by a board twelve inches high. On the straw covering the floor lay dirty bedding. The sides of the stalls were hung full of clothes. In the first stall



SECOND FARM.

Family group. Several children too small to work.
Fireplace of stone and earth, unsheltered in case of rain.

was a family of seven, a mother of American origin and six children, two or three of whom were too young to work. Next to them was a Polish family of four, one of whom was in an advanced stage of tuberculosis. She was too ill to work, they said, and so stayed about the shanty most of the time. Outside the shanty were primitive cooking arrange-

ments. Each family had its own fireplace roughly built of stones, and a stone oven was used in common for baking bread. Water for washing and cooking was carried from a spring a short distance away. The latrine used by all in the shanty was off in the woods.

The second farm was a mile further on and the camp was pleasantly situated in a grove of trees. Here we found four shacks of various sizes, with accommodations for a hundred and fifty pickers. When we arrived all the inhabitants were under the trees, the children running about barefoot, the elders eating at rough tables or cooking over their primitive fireplaces. Each family had its own table as well as its fireplace, and one cook stove was sheltered by a tent of ragged matting. Here we found two classes of workers—families, and a lot of men recruited apparently from the tramp class. The quarters of each were separate.

The largest shack which was a hundred feet long by fourteen feet wide, was divided into three rooms, the middle and one end room being for the men and the other end room for the families. There were no windows, but each room or compartment had its own door and was quite separate from the others. The middle division, twenty-eight by fourteen feet, was occupied by only six men, although capable of holding many more. There were no partitions, and the sleep-



TEN FAMILIES OR PENS TO A SIDE.
Interior of one of the shacks on the third farm showing pens or divisions allotted each family.

ing arrangements were one or two rough bunks, with piles of straw on the floor. In the family compartment, of the same size, were six families practically in the same room. There were no partitions as in the case of the first farm, with even the scant privacy which they afforded. Instead, rough boards divided the floor into pens twelve inches high, which served to keep the straw from being scattered and to mark out the space assigned to each family. A small open space down the middle of the room served as a passageway, and the single door admitted what light there was and was the sole means of ventilation. The air inside was heavy and foul.

It was here that we learned from the pickers of the farm store, where supplies

hundred pickers, and one camp was visited. There were other camps on other parts of the farm where Negroes and tramps were employed, but the camp we visited was reserved for families. Here were two shacks, each sixty by eighteen feet, with a roof eight feet high at the sides and twelve feet in the center. The shacks had a door at each end, and three windows on each side, two by three feet. There was no glass in the windows, which were fastened by sliding wooden shutters. At mid-day these were closed and the people said that both doors and windows were kept shut all night. Reasons for this were the mosquitoes and flies and fear of the Negroes and tramps of the other camps.

Inside the shacks there were no parti-



FOUR FAMILY SHACK ON THIRD FARM.

Building forty by thirteen feet. Three windows, two feet square, on opposite side. Only one door, (at the end) could be opened.

might be bought from the farmer at prices in advance of the standard price. The workers were paid by checks, which were taken in payment at the store, and considerable dissatisfaction was felt at this arrangement. Two or three times a week butcher and baker's wagons delivered meat and bread to the farm. These supplies could be obtained at the store, but the pickers were not allowed to stop the wagons and buy from them directly, although the storekeepers were obliged to drive through the camp before reaching the farm house. This store system existed on all the farms which were later visited.

The third farm employed some two

tions, but the same arrangement of low pens and dirty bedding as at the second farm. Twenty families lived in each shack, ten to a side. This meant that every night at least a hundred people were huddled together here, with no distinction of age, sex or condition. The demoralization incident to such promiscuity is obvious without further words. The ordinary decencies of life are impossible. A woman told me that one night during the previous week she had had a miscarriage and the doctor had been obliged to render his services in the midst of the crowd of people, in all the dirt and discomfort of the surroundings.



WHERE TWENTY FAMILIES LIVE.

Shack on the third farm sixty by eighteen feet that shelters about one hundred people.

Lying on the straw in one shed we found a woman who from her rapid pulse and general appearance seemed to be suffering from a high fever. She had been in this condition for several days. There were four others in the family and the pen which held them was about six feet square. The next pen, which was somewhat larger, held a family of nine. In another pen lay a child of fourteen who had been overcome by the heat while at work in the fields the day before. One family, whose pen was half way down the side of the shanty, included among its members an apparently tuberculous child of twelve. The only ventilation in this long shack was from the doors, which stood open, one at each end. The air inside was hot and close, deserted as the shack was except by the few sick people. What the conditions were at night may be imagined, when the workers returned from the fields—fathers and mothers of families, young boys and girls of twenty or thereabouts, children and babies—all herded together.

The week preceding our second visit had been one of almost continuous rain, and the people talked freely of their deplorable condition during that time. They had been obliged to work in the rain, as the berries had to be gathered, but their greatest distress came when they had finished their day's work. There was no place in which to dry their drenched clothes and shoes. The fireplaces were all out in the field and to use them even for cooking they had to be sheltered by

umbrellas. The shacks themselves were weatherproof, but this of course did not relieve the situation, because of their overcrowded condition and utter lack of facilities.

There was but one latrine for this large camp, situated about a city block from the shacks. The result was a filthy condition of the ground in the immediate neighborhood of the buildings. Dish-water and garbage were also thrown about indiscriminately, and flies swarmed everywhere.

The attitude of the workers towards their living conditions is significant. As district nurses we are familiar with these people in town, knowing them for the most part as decent and self-respecting families, although of course many of them are extremely poor. They are attracted to the strawberry fields by the opportunities of making money, but are acutely conscious of their degrading living conditions. The women and young girls are particularly sensitive about it. One woman said to us, "It was my last chance, I had to come." Another said, "This is my first and last time here—I'll never come again." And another said, "We live like hogs." We had the greatest difficulty in getting a picture of the interior of this shack. The women were ashamed to have it taken, and one Polish woman planted herself in the doorway and defiantly refused to let us enter with the camera. It was only after a great deal of coaxing and persuasion that we finally succeeded. It was the same on



NEGRO CAMP ON THE FIFTH FARM.

Shack twenty by twelve feet, divided into two compartments, one holding eight, the other twelve people. No windows.

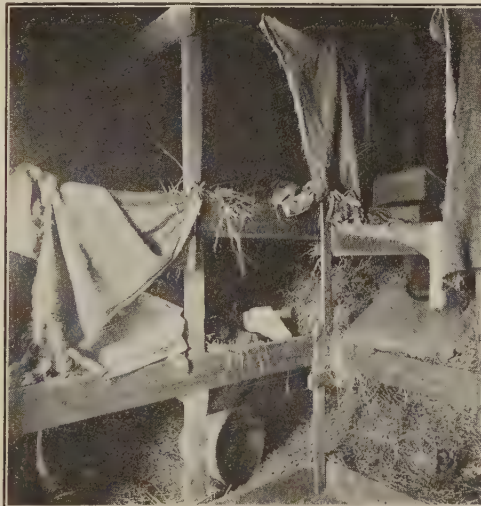
the other farms—the women allowed us to look at their quarters only after constant urging, and amidst many apologies, but flatly refused to let them be photographed.

Outside the shack the air was fresh and cool and the bay sparkled in the distance. One could not help being forcibly impressed with the waste of opportunities of benefit to these people from an outdoor life in such surroundings, and with the fact that this waste was due to perfectly removable causes.

On the fourth farm colored pickers were employed. They are preferred by some farmers because they are less trouble and are cheaper than whites. They cut and hew their own firewood and do not have to be sent into town for supplies. The forty pickers, with possibly as many again who were not pickers, were divided among three or four cabins, in which rough bunks were provided for sleeping. One

shack was twenty by twelve feet, divided into two compartments; and in one of these eight and in the other twelve people slept. The element of family life was noticeably lacking, as is generally the case with colored people of the class to which these belonged. They were merely a collection of men and women, with children belonging to the latter. We saw one woman in the last stages of tuberculosis who was living in a cabin with ten others. She was so ill that she could pick for only two hours out of the day.

The rest of the time she spent in visiting around in the different shanties, though she seemed hardly able to walk from one to the other. With these people there was no consciousness of their demoralized living conditions. They showed us their quarters with alacrity, good naturedly laughing at their shortcomings, and were only too glad to be photographed.



NEGRO SHACK ON THE FOURTH FARM.

On the last farm,

which employed two hundred pickers, there were several camps some distance apart, only one of which we had time to examine. The situation of this camp was specially attractive. It stood immediately on Stony Creek, and its inhabitants could bathe in the creek and catch fish and crabs from the wharf where the steamboat stopped daily for its freight of strawberries. Under the great trees which overspread the camp were small huts of matting with tables and benches, where the different families had their meals, and the little brown stone fireplaces were everywhere about. The houses were very much the same as on the other farms, and consisted of four or five shanties grouped closely. The shanties were two stories high, divided into rooms about fifteen feet square, each of which held four families. There were also a few smaller rooms for one family. There were two windows in each story. Things seemed cleaner and tidier than we had found them elsewhere.

So far, mainly conditions of living have been described. In regard to the food of the pickers, we found that it consisted mainly of ham and bacon, and coffee with condensed milk. As the farms on which the camps were situated were

truck farms only, it was out of the question to get fresh milk, no matter how badly it might be needed for the children. Eggs were also unobtainable. One woman had a child of two years very ill with diarrhoea; at the time she asked our advice about it the child was eating a raw crab, yet ham or bacon and coffee were the only articles of diet that presented themselves as alternatives. As the season advanced, however, peas, beans and other fresh vegetables could be obtained as the crops were ready to be picked. Potatoes were used a good deal, but were brought from town.

We were told that most of the pickers went to work in the morning without any breakfast rather than have the trouble of building fires. The provisions themselves stood around in the close, dirty shanties, the sides of bacon hanging up among the clothes that lined the walls.

The pay received for the work is on the whole good though uncertain. In strawberry picking the workers get one and a half cents for every box gathered, and when the fruit is plentiful a good picker can gather two hundred boxes of berries in a morning, thus earning two dollars and a half. But rains, drought, excessive heat and sudden storms make



TWO STORY SHACK ON THE FIFTH FARM.

The huts of matting used to shelter the dining tables and stores of the different families.

the income from the work very irregular. The number of pickers also makes a difference in the individual earnings. Conditions are similar in the case of all crops. Considering the character of the work, the hours are not excessively hard. The first picking begins at four o'clock in the morning, and generally ends at eleven, the boss notifying the pickers when to stop and when to resume work. A two or three hours' rest is usually given at midday, because of the heat. Work is resumed again at two or three o'clock and lasts until dark.

It would seem that gathering crops with its outdoor life and opportunity for

inadequate, there are not proper means of preparing it, and there is no provision whatever for the necessities of the children who constitute a large part of the population. In the second place, the herding together of both sexes and the impossibility of observing the ordinary decencies of life are necessarily extremely demoralizing.

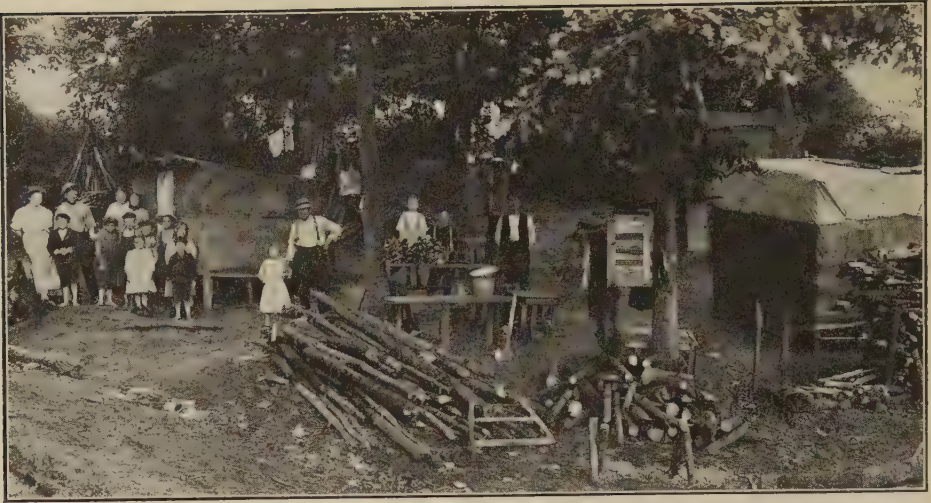
In the third place, the presence of disease, especially tuberculosis, is a constant menace both to the workers themselves and to the community at large. Owing to the living conditions in the camps, the number of people subject to the danger of infection from a tuberculous indi-



GROUP OF PICKERS ON THE THIRD FARM.

wholesome recreation in the open country offered an ideal change for these city dwellers, and that it ought to be profitable for them morally and physically and financially. Under existing conditions, however, not only is any possible benefit largely neutralized, but positive danger and harm are involved. The investigation was of course superficial, but it served to establish certain points in regard to the living conditions of the pickers. In the first place, they are greatly overcrowded in small, sometimes windowless shanties with little or no ventilation, under circumstances which make dirt and disease inevitable. The food is

vidual is many times as great as it would be in the city. Moreover, a consumptive who is able to work may gather many boxes of berries. The fruit gathered by him is for the most part eaten raw, and may very well be the source of incidental tuberculosis infection. The welfare, therefore, not only of those who actually engage in this occupation, but also of the rest of the community demands that some method be adopted of improving the conditions. Two weeks after our second visit to the fields one of the district nurses was called to a family who had just returned to town from one of the camps. The mother (who was to be



CAMP ON THE FIFTH FARM.

confined within a month) and three of the children of this family had contracted typhoid fever while away.

Housing arrangements should be required which would provide for the requisite amount of air and space for the maintenance of cleanliness and for the separation of the sexes, so that the ordinary deficiencies of life could be maintained; proper food for the children who make up a large part of the population of the camps should be made accessible; medical inspection should be held to dis-

cover infectious disease; a place should be provided for those who are temporarily or suddenly indisposed, and also for the prompt removal of those who are ill, when necessary. There should be some sort of supervision of the camps to see that the pickers avail themselves of the opportunities for sanitary living. All these things would do much to change the occupation of picking crops from one of distinct harm and danger to one which would be wholesome and profitable.



THE NEW CLUB.

THE LITTLE RED SCHOOL HOUSE

EDWARD J. WARD

SUPERVISOR OF SOCIAL CENTERS AND
PLAYGROUNDS UNDER THE BOARD
OF EDUCATION OF ROCHESTER



THE OLD CLUB.

The real ancestor of the public school social center is not the social settlement but the little red school house back home, which, in the evenings, was used for a common meeting place for the neighborhood.

To borrow from Eugene Wood in *Back Home: Talk of the social center in the public school as a municipal substi-*

¹Illustrations from the report of the Rochester Social Centers and Clubs.

tute for the settlement and a few may listen to you; but "sing of the Little Red School House on the Hill" and all are interested. There is the true democracy which batters down the walls that separate us from each other—the walls of caste distinction, and color prejudice, and national hatred, and religious contempt, all the petty, anti-social meanness that quarrels with "the union of hearts." We



WEST HIGH SCHOOL.

Second building to be opened as a social center in Rochester.

are all of one blood, one bounden duty; all these anti-social prejudices are just as shameful as illiteracy, and they must disappear as soon as we come to know each other well.

This is the spirit of the Rochester social centers. It is not that we do not recognize the need of social service but that we realize that that need is mutual. It is not that we do not realize that the Italian, for instance, needs to be told our story of Lincoln but because we recognize that he has a story of Garibaldi which is as interesting to him as our story of Lincoln is to us. All the devotion, all the social passion that the truest "soldier of the common good" can feel are needed and can find opportunity for expression, but the spirit of condescension, the spirit of George Ade's "broad girl," who wished to be "benevolent," is absolutely out of place in the public social center. The spirit in which the social center movement should be started should be not less democratic and human than the spirit of the little old red school house back home. If the spirit of the Rochester movement were any less fine and broad and American it would not be worthy of the statement of Governor Hughes: "I am more interested in what

you are doing, and what it stands for, than in anything else in the world."

One of the most significant statements made at the recent conference of Charities and Correction, at Buffalo, was by Francis H. McLean, who said that the most important of all the social problems of the smaller cities is the problem of public recreation. This statement was made as the result of careful investigation into the conditions and needs of the majority of the cities of the country, showing that the principal problem of those communities is, not charities or correction in the old sense, at all, but public recreation.

How about the cities which are not included in this statement, the great cities, New York and Chicago for instance? The most remarkable studies of the social conditions of these two cities that have appeared recently are those of George Kibbe Turner. Carefully he cuts to the roots of the political and social municipal rottenness. And where does he find the roots? In the saloon, "the prostitution syndicate" and the "vice trust"; that is, in the recreations of those cities.

The establishment of public parks and playgrounds, where out of door recrea-

tion may be had in wholesome environment and under friendly supervision, is an excellent partial solution of the problem; but it is only a partial solution. The leisure time of the majority of people is the evening, when, except in fine weather in summer, parks and playgrounds are not, as a rule, usable. Many people are free during the day, but more are free during the evening. Except for the special needs of little children, every argument which holds for supplying public outdoor recreation for use in the daytime, applies with greater force to the need of supplying wholesome recreational facilities for evening use indoors.

The work that Chicago has done in building its beautiful field houses, as a means of meeting this need, is worthy of the pride that Chicago people have in it. But it is probable that, in spite of the brilliant example of Chicago in the use of specially constructed buildings, the average American city will follow the more plainly economical course of equipping and opening its school buildings to meet this need. By all the traditions of the public school this is the natural course to pursue.

When Prof. Earl Barnes was in Rochester he was asked what he thought of the opening of the school buildings for wholesome, recreational uses as community gathering places in the evenings. His answer was, "Why, this thing has been decreed from the beginning. Every community must come to it. Rochester is to be congratulated only on the fact that it has been a little quicker to do it in a big democratic way than other cities."

Someone at the Buffalo conference said: "School boards, school principals and school teachers who are so lacking in public spirit as to object to having the school buildings used in the largest, best ways for the benefit of the people who own them, have not enough social consciousness to justify their being entrusted with the training of children for life in the community; and public officials who object to the free discussion of public questions in the public school buildings are obviously not fit to hold office." A strong statement, and if it is representative of a general feeling, a significant

one. At any rate, the statement that Dr. Gulick has made, that it is better to use those buildings which the people now own, to the full, than to clamor for money to secure new buildings, is common sense. I do not mean to imply that Chicago has not done a great thing in the building of its field houses but when I remarked to one of the men who has been influential in securing those fine grounds and buildings that I wished that we in Rochester had the public spirit to secure something like them, he answered: "Chicago needs more what Rochester has than Rochester needs what Chicago has."

There is no need of worrying about getting school buildings open for recreational uses in the evening, not only because this is so obviously wise and desirable an extension of their service, but because in a dozen cities in the country strong movements have started with this purpose.

It is not a question of getting the movement started; it is simply a question of the spirit in which the movement is begun in any city. "As the twig is bent the tree is inclined," and if you start it wrong you will have great difficulty in getting it going right. See the case of New York.

The "recreational centers" there have upon them the stigma of class service. The first school buildings to be equipped and opened in New York were in a poor, foreign, congested district. They have about them the idea of serving the poor. The result is that they are likely to be regarded for some time as a sort of municipal charity institution. It will be very hard for them to develop the wholesome, independent, "city-as-a-whole" spirit of acquaintance and common interest, which is the greatest need of our municipal life. The point to be emphasized in beginning this work in any city is to choose, as the first building to be opened, one in a comparatively well-to-do neighborhood and to use the building not as a means of uplifting the submerged, the poor; but of finding the spirit of broad social exchange, the common sense spirit of the people's getting their money's worth out of their own property.

The idea of getting the school build-



SATURDAY EVENING AT NO 9.



"GENERAL EVENING" AUDIENCE AT WEST HIGH CENTER.



READING ROOM AT NO. 14 CENTER.

ings open as social centers had been discussed by various organizations in Rochester for years. On February 15, 1907, delegates from eleven organizations representing all sorts of interests and more than 50,000 citizens, met in the Chamber of Commerce and formed themselves into an association called the School Extension Committee. At this meeting a sub-committee was appointed "to ask the Board of Education if it would be willing to undertake the superintendence of this social work in the schools providing an appropriation of city funds could be obtained." As a result of this committee's work the consent of the board was secured and a special appro-

open to all the people of the neighborhood. The visit to New York city resulted in the decision that the first building to be opened should not be in a poor district, and that the emphasis should be put upon the use of the social centers by adults, because it was felt that if the social centers were designed especially for the children, they would be limited to the use of the children, while, if they were made attractive to adults they would reach both them and the children.

No. 14 School building which, more than any other in Rochester is in the mid-ground of its social, political and religious life, was the first to be opened. The assembly hall was equipped as a gymna-



"ACQUAINTANCE" EVENING AT NO. 14.

priation of \$5,000 was made, a part of it to be used for the maintenance of playgrounds and a part for the equipment and opening of one social center.

A supervisor of the work was chosen who immediately visited Chicago to see the work in the field houses, and New York city to see the activities in the recreation centers. There was not money enough to follow the example of Chicago and even if there were, it was thought that a better community spirit could be developed, not by the opening of the public buildings for the successive use of exclusive organizations, but by making them the club houses of single community organizations which should be

sium, shower baths were installed, 500 books were rented from the Albany State Library, and games and magazines, were procured. The week was divided so as to give three nights to men and boys, two nights to women and girls and one night to all together, when a lecture or entertainment, followed by a social hour, was arranged. Within a short time the men of the community had organized themselves into a Men's Civic Club, the women into a Women's Civic Club, the boys and girls into similar groups, each of them meeting once each week, each of them self-governing and free. The "directors" included a man who had charge of all the activities, a woman in



THE MEN'S CIVIC CLUB AT NO. 14.

charge of the girls' clubs, a man in charge of the boys' clubs, a gymnasium director for men and boys, a gymnasium director for women and girls, and assistants to these two, a librarian and a door and hall keeper. The janitor work was done by a man, hired by and responsible to the regular school janitor who was paid for the extra work incidental to the use of the building as a social center.

The success of the movement was indicated not only by the large, enthusiastic attendance from the beginning at No. 14, but especially by the fact that in four other school buildings the people of the communities spontaneously came together and asked to be allowed to use their buildings as meeting places for civic clubs; requests which, of course, were granted by the Board of Education. The attendance during the first season of six months at No. 14 Social Center was over 25,000. The cost of equipping and maintaining the center was a little over \$3,000. Dividing the total expenditure by the number attending, the cost for each person including the use of the gymnasium, baths, library, magazines, games, lectures and entertainments as well as facilities for club meetings was about twelve cents.

When the question of extending the movement the second year was pending, the following letter signed by some seventy-five men who frequented the cen-

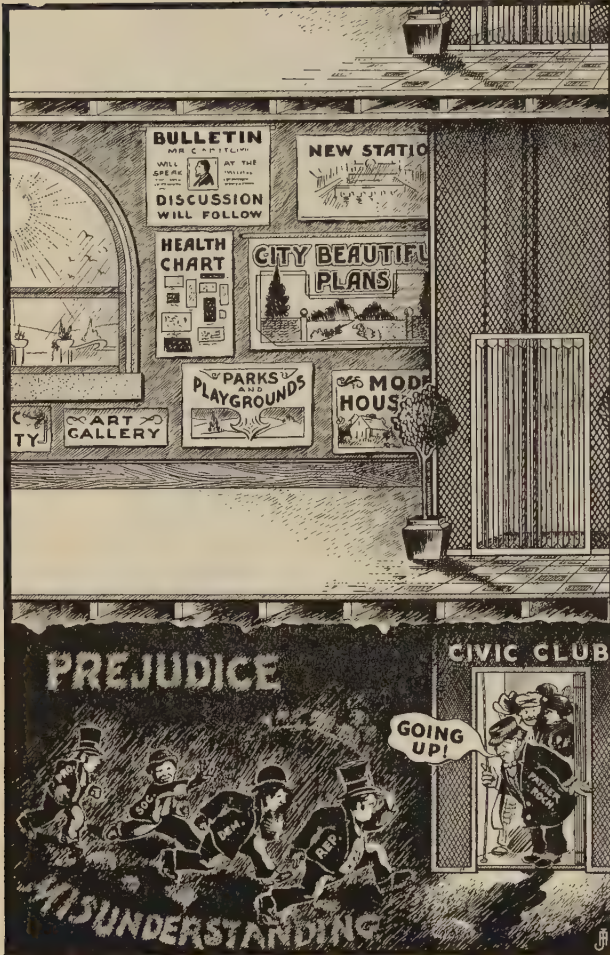
ter, was sent to the mayor and Common Council of the city.

Knowing that the question of extending the social center work of the public schools is now before you and believing that the judgment of the men who have frequented the social center at No. 14 School may be of value in this matter, we, the undersigned voters, residing in the neighborhood of No. 14 School, and members of the Men's Civic Club of the social center declare that, in our judgment, the opening of the public schools in the evening for recreation, reading and club meetings so far as it has been tried at No. 14 School, is an unqualified success.

Not only does it give opportunity for wholesome, athletic exercise, literary culture, and training in good citizenship to the older boys and girls and young men and women of the community and, in its free lectures afford opportunities for entertainment and instruction to all the people, but especially in its clubs for men and women it is of great value as a place for the discussion and understanding of civic questions and the development of a good community spirit.

In our opinion there could be no more wise and economical investment of the city's money than in the extension of the social center movement, and we do most heartily endorse the recommendation of the Board of Education in this matter.

An appropriation double that of the first year having been secured, it was decided to open two other school buildings the second year, in addition to No. 14. In their selection the same idea was kept of including all sections of the city



and the two buildings chosen were West High School, which is in one of the most well-to-do, native American sections, and No. 9 School, which is in the midst of a largely foreign and somewhat congested population. The spirit of the social centers as an expression of the community's will, was shown by the fact that before either West High or No. 9 was equipped and opened as a center, a civic club had been formed by the men of the neighborhood in each of these schools.

The plan of the division of time and of the activities to be carried on was kept through the second season. The only changes made were the exclusion of all school children from the social centers on the ground that they had the privilege of the school buildings during

the day and ought not to crowd out the others in the evening; and the opening of the social centers on Sunday afternoons. This latter action was taken in response to the recommendation of the Ministers' Association of Rochester.

Before the end of the second year, while the clubs of young people continued to be limited to the social centers, men's civic clubs were formed in nine other school buildings in various sections of the city.

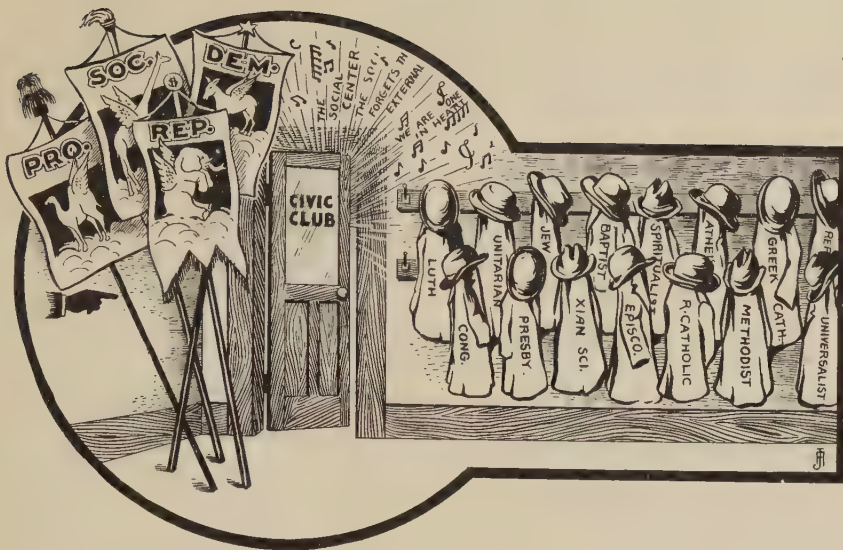
On the second of February, sixty delegates, representing the men's and women's civic clubs then organized, assembled in the court room in the Municipal Building and organized the League of Civic Clubs. The reasons for the organization of this body, and its purpose, may be taken from the preamble to its constitution:

The steady growth of the civic club movement from its beginning in December, 1907, when there was one club with twelve members, to the present, when there are sixteen clubs with 1,500 members, seems to justify the belief that there is a permanent, real need of non-partisan

organizations of adult citizens, meeting in the public school buildings for the purpose of developing intelligent public spirit by the open presentation and free discussion of matters of common interest; and that the civic clubs meet that need.

To increase the effectiveness of the civic clubs and to further their purpose, especially in such matters as the securing and entertaining of distinguished visitors to the city; in giving unity to the expression, through the various civic clubs, of the people's will in the matter of desired legislation, and in guiding the further extension of the civic club movement with a view to the welfare of the city as a whole, it is desirable to form a central league or federation of these civic clubs.

On April 8, this year, Governor Hughes visited Rochester in response to the invitation sent him by the League of Civic Clubs and signed by 1,270 mem-



bers. Afer visiting the social centers he said, among other things:

You in Rochester are meeting one of the great tests of our democratic life; you are proving that the virtues of humanity far exceed in force the vices of humanity; you are showing that it is health that is contagious and that in a prosperous community the most intelligent of the citizens of the community turn their attention to the thought of mutual improvement and of enlarging the area of the real opportunities of life, not in mere money getting, but in enriching the character, giving chance for expression of individuality, bringing home the information and the stores of knowledge that are otherwise inaccessible to many who are burdened with the toils of the day. It is in the social centers of Rochester that I should look for an answer to the question whether in a great democratic community you are realizing the purposes of society. I congratulate you upon the use that is made of the fine public buildings that have been erected for educational purposes. You are organized in civic clubs, you have federated these clubs and you are discussing public questions. We cannot have too much of that. I believe absolutely in the success of the merits of a proposition. The one thing that we cannot afford to do without in this country is public discussion.

At the dinner, which was given him at No. 14 Social Center, the governor said:

I am more interested in what you are doing, and what it stands for, than in anything else in the world. You are buttressing the foundations of democracy.

The attitude of the men who are in public positions toward the movement is

illustrated by the words of one of the aldermen, who spoke at the second meeting of the first Men's Civic Club to be formed. His address had been on The Duties of an Alderman. At the close he responded to the vote of thanks tendered him by the club by saying:

You have given me a vote of thanks. I feel that I want to give you a vote of thanks for the privilege of speaking to you and hearing your frank discussion of my words. If you have been benefited by my coming here, I have been benefited more. If every member of the Common Council and every other public servant had, frequently, such opportunities as this to discuss public matters with those to whom he owes his appointment it would mean that we would have much better, more intelligent representation of the people's interest and a cleaner government.

At the organization of the seventeenth civic club in another part of the city the alderman of that ward used these words:

The value of a civic club from the point of view of the private citizen has been stated. I want to say a word in regard to its value from the point of view of the public servant. An alderman is elected to represent the people, a good alderman wants to represent the people, but how in the



world can he represent the people unless he knows what the people want? And how shall he know what the people want unless they tell him? I welcome the civic club because it will give me an opportunity to learn the will of the people in this neighborhood.

At a banquet of the No. 14 Men's Civic Club the county chairman of one of the dominant political parties put it this way:

The school houses are the real places for political meetings. I do not mean that they should be open to any one political party but to all. Why should I be compelled to go into a barroom to address a political meeting where the bartender uses me to advertise his beer? Why should I be compelled to go into smoke filled rooms to talk on political issues when we have buildings like this where these things can be taken up?

The attitude of the churches is illustrated by the fact that it was the Minister's Association which recommended the opening of the school buildings on Sundays.

One of the most striking comments upon the value of the social center as a means of assimilating the various elements of our complex city life was made by an Italian in a public meeting on February 7. He said:

When you meet the Italian half way as you do in the social center, recognizing that

he, as an Italian, has something to bring, something to contribute to the common store, then you teach him to love and honor the American flag and all that it stands for to you, by showing some respect for his flag and all that it stands for to him, then you make him feel friendly, you make him feel that he is a man, you make him feel that he must be worthy of his larger citizenship.

The value of the social centers in face of the boy problem is indicated in the words of a merchant, whose place of business is on a corner near No. 14 School. Within a month of the opening of this center he stopped the director on the street to say to him: "The social center has accomplished what I had regarded as impossible. I have been here nine years and during that time there has always been a gang of toughs around these corners, which has been a continual nuisance. This winter the gang has disappeared." It isn't a gang any more than it is a debating club. The value to both boys and girls of having a wholesome meeting place for social activities under friendly supervision is obvious.

About the time that the social center movement started in Rochester there appeared in one of the magazines an article upon the evening uses of the school house in the village community. In that article the kindly, neighborhood spirit, which was developed in the school house meetings, social and political, was de-



FIRST ITALIAN MEN'S CIVIC CLUB.

scribed. In connection with this description the author asserted that there is no such spirit of community interest, no such neighborly feeling, no such democracy as the village in any American city; and that there never can be such a spirit of community interest, such a neighborly spirit, such democracy, until some institution is developed in the midst of our complex city life in which people of all races, classes and parties shall find a common gathering place, a common means of acquaintance, an opportunity to learn to think in terms of the city as a whole—until there is developed an institution which will serve the people in the city as the little red school house served the people back home.

To fill this need has been the aim of the Rochester social centers. There have been criticisms, indeed the strongest guarantee of the character of the social center is its openness to criticism, but these have been of method and of detail. No person, who has visited a social center or attended a civic club, has yet been heard to express anything but approval of the idea. And almost always there has been in the expression of approval a suggestion of wonder that this larger use of the school buildings has not before been made in the city, a suggestion, even on the part of those who were themselves born in the city and who have always lived there, that this is just an expression of the spirit of community interest, the neighborly spirit, the democracy that we knew in the evening gatherings in the little red school house back home.

The real place of the social center in the community life is expressed in this song, whose form is doggerel but which is nevertheless popular because it is true:

THE SOCIAL CENTER. (Air: Mr. Dooley.)

There are several parties here in our communittee,
Republican and democrat and socialist—
that's three.

They never get together just because they disagree;
But there's a place where all of them can talk things over free.

CHORUS:

It's—at—the—center,
The social center.
The place where everybody feels at home:
Forgets th' external
And gets fraternal;
There's something doing there—you'd better come.

There are many churches here, all teaching brotherhood:
Some of them are better and all of them are good.
But Catholic and Protestant and Jew are kept apart,
There's just one place where we all know that we are one in heart.

There are a lot of races here in our communittee;
English—French—Italian—Greek—Dane—
Swede—Hindoo—Chinee
And sometimes they forget that we are all one familiee;
But there's a place where this is just the fact that you will see.

Now there are some distinctions that are seen upon the street,
For some folks ride in auto cars and some ride on their feet,
And worry about the price of clothes comes in and spoils the fun,
But there's a place where hats are off, and rich and poor are one.

There are little social circles here, each with its coterie;
Some in saloons, some pedro cliques—some soaking up pink tea,
But everyone is glad there is a place where each one gets
A chance to be acquainted with the folks in other sets.

Near the end of this last season in one of the social centers a man said: "Won't it be homelike when other cities take up this idea. One will always know that there is a friendly, interesting place not far away where he can spend an evening, a place where class and race lines, religious and political differences don't count, where people are just 'folks' meeting on common ground in the common interest."



A PLEA FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING¹

MARY FLEXNER

HENRY STREET SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK CITY

We are at last awakening to the effect of modern industrial conditions upon the welfare of children as industrial units. Under existing circumstances children everywhere become productive workers during the years dedicated by nature to sheer growth. There is a sharp conflict between their individual interests on one side, and the needs of their families and the industrial uses of which children are capable, on the other. By protective legislation we endeavor to secure the best conditions obtainable on the side of physical development, then attention shifts elsewhere, and the question frames itself: Recognizing that children are bound to figure as economic units, are we doing well by them, educationally—equipping them to be the most effective economic force that they are capable of becoming? The well-known high rate of elimination from the elementary schools suggests grave doubts on this point.

To discover in individual cases the actual forces in operation and to demonstrate biographically the educational maladjustment, the present study was undertaken in New York city in March, April, May and June, 1908.

The names of 1,000 children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years were gathered through the courtesy of the Department of Health which grants employment certificates. Later the number was increased by nineteen friends,

sisters and brothers of the first children. It was reduced in the course of the enquiry by the fact that 262 addresses could not be located, the families having, in most cases moved; and 91 children (nearly 10 per cent of the whole number) having returned to school after working only in vacation.

Among 666 identified and located, there were found Negroes and children of parentage of the following fifteen different nationalities: Russian, German, Austrian, Hungarian, Bohemian, Roumanian, English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch,

Polish, French-Swiss, German-Swiss, Sicilian-Italian and Swedish. The foreign-born children numbered 126 and the native born 540.

The area covered was the Borough of Manhattan and the schools represented are 100 public and 31 parochial. The information desired from the schools for each child embraced the date, age,

reason for leaving school, and the grade reached.

From the public schools, these items were obtained largely through correspondence, and prompt replies and ready interest were due, in great part, to a letter of introduction from Dr. William H. Maxwell, superintendent of education.

To the parochial schools personal visits were made and the reason for the investigation explained. This method having proved ineffectual in eleven cases, letters were sent which unfortunately shared the fate of the earlier interviews. It seems

ONE CHILD'S EMPLOYMENT RECORD

First, three days in factory sorting buttons.

Second, two months ribboning corset covers, and machine work on them.

Third, one week, ribboning and buttoning corset covers.

Fourth, time unknown, ladies' underwear.

Fifth, up to Christmas, ladies' underwear, errand girl.

Sixth, two and one-half months, ribboning corset covers.

Seventh, time unknown, ladies' underwear, errand girl.

Eighth, few weeks, trimmed, cut and examined men's ties.

Ninth, few weeks, returned to second job.

Tenth, few weeks home work, ribboning.

¹Based on a study of one thousand children who left school to work.

fair to conclude, therefore, that the failure to respond argues not only indifference to the problem but also, as one principal frankly admitted to be true of his school, a total absence of records. In view of the compulsory education law this is a serious shortcoming, and makes flagrant violations of the law by parents and children comparatively easy.

Of the 666 children, 406 left school before graduating from the eighth grade, the greatest number from one grade, 76, leaving the 5B grade, the lowest allowed by the compulsory education law. Only 128 children had been graduated, and of these 20 had for one or two terms attended high schools, trade or technical schools or colleges, while 50 had worked during the summer and returned to school in the fall. Of the 406 children who left school it is distressing to note:

- 22 from 5A grade, among them 2 from parochial schools.
- 5 from 4B grade, among them 4 from parochial schools.
- 2 from 4A grade, among them 2 from parochial schools.
- 1 from 3B grade, among them 1 from parochial schools.

Of these 30 children, 8 were of Irish, 7 Russian-Jewish, 4 Bohemian, 4 Italian, 3 German, 2 Austrian and 2 American parentage. All had left school and gone to work in disregard of the law, and this they could not do without implicating besides their parents either the schools or the Board of Health.

Twenty-six were below the legal age—fourteen years—76 were just 14, and the remainder in their fifteenth year. The under-age children represented the following nationalities: Italian, Russian-Jewish, German, Bohemian, Irish and American.

In all instances save two, where records were returned by the schools, the reason given for the child's leaving was "economic pressure at home." In the exceptions the cause assigned in one was "a positive distaste for school" to which the parent unconditionally agreed, and in the other the child's return to Italy. Visits to the children's homes during which the mother and father and, as often as possible, the child himself, were asked the all-important question, revealed quite

another state of affairs. The school records state that 526 children left from necessity, 128 at graduation from the eighth grade, 398 before graduation. The interviews in the homes developed that 150 children, 24 of them graduates, left school for reasons other than economic, thus reducing the number of those whose earnings were needed at home from 526 to 380.

The reasons assigned show that the children are not in harmony with the present school environment: "Did not want to go to school"; "Not interested"; "Wouldn't apply himself"; "No taste for study"; "Work the best thing"; "Restless, wouldn't study"; "Played truant, truant officer suggested that he be put to work"; "Played truant, gone one week, returned and got a job"; "Poor student, had no head, bad boy"; "Ran the streets, good place offered"; "Wanted to work, could learn more in business"; "Dull, troublesome, wanted to handle money of his own"; "Wanted to work, to dress and eat better"; "In ill-health, doctor ordered work"; "Impediment in speech"; "Nervous, lost two terms, thought himself too big for his class"—a common excuse; "Failed to graduate, discouraged, left"; "Parent thought him educated enough"; "Parent thought he would be as well off working"; "Lost interest, teacher not very wise, complained about him too much"; "Disliked teacher"; "Mischievous, had trouble with teacher, hence didn't graduate"; "Started work in vacation and just kept on"; "Wanted a practical training"; "Wanted to be electrician"; "Wanted to enter trade school"; "Wanted to do something with his hands"; "Entered high school, botany and other studies didn't interest him."

Upon those who leave school from necessity and those who left from choice, the doors of the world of education are not wholly closed. There remain evening schools, business colleges, correspondence schools, and special classes subsidized by private philanthropy. Of the 104 children who left school from necessity, 18 were attending courses at evening high schools in bookkeeping, stenography, French and German; 7 were studying in evening business colleges, and 1 was

taking a course in millinery at the Y. W. C. A.

Of the 276 who had not graduated, 42 were attending evening schools studying bookkeeping, millinery and dressmaking; 3 were students in evening business colleges, and 1 was attending a correspondence school, studying architecture.

Of 24 who were graduates among the children who left school from choice, 3 were studying bookkeeping, algebra or geometry in evening high schools; 3 were taking courses in bookkeeping and stenography at business colleges; 1 was learning plumbing at a trade school; 1 was in the commercial courses in a technical school; 1 was studying dressmaking in a trade school. Of 126 non-graduates, 24 were taking courses in bookkeeping in evening schools, 1 was attending a trade school, learning dressmaking.

The situation is the same for those concerning whom the schools returned no records. Of 82, 16 were in evening schools, studying bookkeeping and drawing; 3 were attending commercial courses in business colleges; 1 was studying drawing at an academy of design.

These figures bring into prominence the popularity of the commercial courses, for of 612 records considered, 116 show a preference for such subjects. This is much to be deplored since, in the majority of cases, it means only a few months' study, and the insufficiently trained young bookkeeper, stenographer or cashier is in no sense fitted for the responsibilities of the position. The employment bureaus, constantly besought to place and replace children so trained, bear eloquent testimony to this truth, and those which have at heart the best interests of the children decline to recommend boys and girls who are by experience and training still incompetent.

Interviews in the children's homes brought out also the fact that the desire for expression other than that which the school affords often showed itself in children still attending school. In more than one instance there seems to have been genuine longing to use hands and eyes, to draw everything within reach from the head of the most famous military leader in the school history to that group of sculpture in the art museum,

which made the strongest appeal to childish fancy.

Whenever it was possible, the investigator tried to encourage such ambition and to find a free evening school or class where the spark of genius might be fanned into a flame. The results of such applications were most discouraging. A child of fifteen or sixteen years has no place reserved for him; he must wait until he is seventeen, eighteen, or even nineteen and then stands small chance, for the waiting lists are dishearteningly long. So he is left to be the pilot of his own delicate craft at a moment when he is most in need of guidance.

An effort was made to arouse the interest of parents in the general question of vocational training, to discover their attitude towards it. It was not possible to get an expression of opinion in all the homes visited. In some there was no interest; in others the intelligence of the parents was not keen enough to distinguish between the two systems of education. But in 319 cases in which an opinion was ventured, 296 were favorable, as against only 23 unfavorable to establishing vocational training. Again and again the question was asked where the schools would be located and when they would be open, so eager were both parents and children to avail themselves of what seemed a promising opportunity to better their condition.

A cursory review of the children's occupations reveals the need for improvement. 127 occupations are represented by 603 of the 666 records, the nature of the work being undiscovered in 63 cases. There are stores, department and specialty, wholesale and retail, grocery, drug, book and many other sorts; factories, ranging through paper box and candy to pianos and ribbons; and trades, including laundering, millinery, engraving and lithographing. There are telegraph and telephone companies, and offices of brokers, doctors and lawyers—variety surely, in the list, but to the children it means little. At the time of the investigation 127 were unemployed, leaving 489 at work, and of these only 56 were learners. Over against this small number we find 111 errand boys, 11 cash boys, 48 office boys, 5 stock boys, 1 transfer boy, 18 messen-

ger boys, 2 elevator boys, 14 errand girls, 30 cash girls, 22 office girls, 10 stock girls, 1 transfer girl, 2 check girls, 25 packers including both boys and girls.

These 300 children are engaged in work that can be regarded only as a blind alley leading nowhere. The fate of the remaining 133 is similar, whether as boxer of ladies waists or bows, cutter of strings or binder of lace curtains, marker of the sizes of leggings, handler of cigars, or as ticket-chopper in a buffet, it is all one. Rarely is there fitness.

Chance plays a large part in placing a child in a store or factory. The first offer is taken, perhaps a brother or sister is employed by the same firm—such are the causes which determine the beginnings of a child's industrial career.

Small wonder that work so secured, by a child so unfitted to make a choice, should be shortlived. In 162 instances the last position was held three months or less. Of these 108 had 1 employment, 60 had 2, 14 had 3, 5 had 4, 1 had 6, 1 had 10.

In 304 instances, the last employment was held over three months. Of these 234 had 1 employment, 56 had 2, 11 had 3, 2 had 4, 1 had 5.

Of 154 the length of whose employment it was impossible to learn, 124 had 1 employment, 21 had 2, 9 had 3.

The remaining twenty, though provided with employment certificates, had held no positions since leaving school. Many records show children idle half the time. Many show intervals between one employment and the next, while the working time was only days or weeks. Thus a child left school in June, 1907, and worked as scheduled on page 650.

The industrial experience of this child embraces in all ten months during which she held ten different positions from three days to two and one-half months—and in this she is not alone.

In general the working period is short and irregular and wages are small. Doubtless there is a connection between the two, though it cannot fairly be held that the former fact is wholly responsible for the latter. Other elements enter in, most important of all being the children's pitiful lack of training.

The wages tell their own story. Of 562 children:

7	earn	\$1.00	to	\$2.00.
20	"	2.00	"	3.00.
72	"	3.00	"	3.50.
84	"	3.50		
8	"	3.50	"	4.00.
159	"	4.00		
58	"	4.50		
105	"	5.00		
8	"	5.50		
25	"	6.00	"	6.50.
13	"	7.00	"	7.50.
3	"	8.00		

The wage of 84 could not be learned, and 20 records showed no work.

Neither the nature of the work nor the wages tempt children to view it as permanent. Hence the frequent changes, not advancement but going from one establishment to another doing the same kind of work. The children are ever ready to explain their constant shifting. Helplessness, childishness, utter irresponsibility reveal themselves in such explanations as the following: "Another girl got the boss to discharge her"; "Girls sent her on errands, boss got mad and discharged her"; "Factory inspector said she could only work till 5; place kept open till 5.45; boss said he couldn't pay three dollars for so little time; discharged her"; "Broke part of machinery"; "Stayed at home for toothache"; "Short in accounts one dollar"; "Girls talked bad Jewish language to her, so she left"; "Wanted holiday on Jewish New Year's, refused, left"; "Wages cut, left"; "No raise in wages after four weeks" (this child has had no work since, a matter of several months); "Too much work, too little pay"; "Not well treated"; "Deliveries too heavy and too late"; "Didn't like errands"; "Left because he learned nothing"; (the last reason was given by boys employed "inside and outside" by a telegraph company); "Another girl told her of a better place; didn't like second place; wanted more money; in third place received one dollar more, but was laid off in a few weeks"; "left to go and learn plumbing."

Children unemployed at the time of the investigation numbered 127. The kind of work that they had been engaged

upon prior to this, was not different from that of their more fortunate comrades. The thirty-nine different firms by whom they had been employed are such as have already been referred to.

To be out of such work would in reality be cause for congratulation rather than reason for despair were it not for the fact that, under present conditions, all other avenues are practically closed to such youthful wage-earners who have had at most seven years of schooling, during which they have not been adequately prepared for the life they are forced to lead. The time has been largely spent over what is often facetiously referred to as "book learning," for manual training, restricted as it is to the two upper grades, is not within reach of the pupils whom the law permits to leave school at the 5B grade.

Is it just or wise to offer through our public schools mental pabulum of but one sort; and that, on the vocational side, of actual use only to a minority? Whether we like it or not, conditions make the children wage-earners. What the schools can do is to make them effective and progressive earners. Only in so far as they do this can the schools hold and help the children. Ought not the rank and file, the thousands who enter yearly upon the commonplace, workaday life, to be helpfully provided for? What is their fate? Year in, year out, in good times and in bad, they are cut short in their school days or they wilfully cut them short; they join the huge army of laborers, snatching at the first offer and holding the position, in most cases, only so long as it suits their fancy. And these positions are of such a kind as to make no demand upon a child's intelligence or training and to lead nowhere.

Yearly is recruited the great horde of errand-boys and girls, cash-boys and girls, stock-boys and girls, packers—in short, the class that it is "handy to have round." What of good for a child lies in such an experience? Has he become through it industrially more efficient, has his interest been aroused, his skill tested? Has he made real use of the knowledge painfully gathered in his all too brief school life, or has he not rather completely forgotten, through lack of prac-

tice, the store, little or big, that he had laid by? Has his earning capacity increased in his endless shifting about from job to job; has he grown in steadfastness of purpose, in stability of character and, finally, has he joy in his work?

To all the answer is "no" and in these facts lies the pathos of the two "wasted years" from fourteen to sixteen, which might be turned to good educational account and to good industrial account as well, were it possible to draw out the schools' day to the sixteenth birthday. The child himself often realizes that he does not fit into the industrial scheme of life and in his desire to make a place for himself turns to some cheap business college for a course in bookkeeping and stenography, thus overcrowding that already crowded occupation, or to the correspondence school for such subjects as he seems to have a talent for, or to the evening school, on the principle that, after all, to quote one mother, "education ain't no burden to carry round."

Our educational needs are changing, following more or less closely changes that have been going on in the world of industry. The schools have done little to meet these needs. It may happen that in hands or eyes a cunning is hidden, but in such a curriculum as exists to-day, what chance is there for it to show? It remains for them to develop into centers of practical training where to hands and eyes as well as brains is given an opportunity to develop what power lies in them.

Such training is well within the range of possibility. It has stood the test of time abroad; in Munich, for instance, where flourish the so-called "continuation schools" in which children forced early to become wage-earners continue their studies. Munich offers more than sixty courses, representing an equal number of vocations. To them employers send youthful wage-earners for study of and practice in the occupation that engages them in the shop, factory or mill. The contract calls for a definite number of hours weekly, and employers realize that it is to their interest as well as that of the children that this be rigidly enforced. The instruction is in the hands of men who have, as it were, smelt pow-

der, and are therefore capable of giving a practical turn to the subject. The problems are such as are met daily in the world of work and the youth is encouraged to bring from the shop to the teacher all questions that need to be illuminated.

It is claimed that such training would make for a more harmonious development of mind and body, would hold out to gifted children a chance to cultivate themselves along their respective lines, and—herein lies its most practical significance—would make of the prospective wage-earner a more valuable industrial unit. Were such courses studied, he would leave the school room possessing the sharpened vision, deft touch, and skill that come from actual contact with the materials that will enter largely into his new life. He would bring to his task a definite contribution and receive from it in return interest in his work and intelligent appreciation of it, no matter how humble.

The plea, then, is for a change in the course of study, a substitution of practical subjects that respond to the needs of life. To make of our public schools mere shops would manifestly be unfair. But since our public schools are for the masses, they should offer courses both academic and practical, holding out equal opportunities to all. Regard should be had for the child's natural predilection, and opportunity given him for at least a reasonable start in the pursuit of his ambition.

It is a fact of common knowledge that

our so-called trained artisans cannot in many trades compete with those of other nations, that our skilled workmen, many foremen of our shops, come from abroad. Massachusetts, a state primarily of manufacturing interests, appointed through its governor an industrial commission to make searching inquiry into the educational and industrial opportunities of youthful wage-earners. The report makes clear the need for education along technical lines. Interest in industrial education in Massachusetts grew out of the manufacturers' realization that unless some change were brought about, they must lose position in the commercial world, while in New York the interest is primarily inspired by the educational need of the children. And this interest, it is encouraging to note, has already assumed tangible form. In New York city, to the trade schools of some years' standing, there was added this year the Stuyvesant Trade School offering courses in mechanical drawing, machine-shop practice, pattern-making and electricity. Elsewhere in the state, notably Rochester, like experiments are being made.

That the principles underlying vocational training have taken root, there can no longer be doubt. But that this training, when put into the scales with the purely academic even approximately balances it, is still an open question. Therefore, it is to the pioneers in it that we, its advocates, look to prove not only the real necessity for it but its intrinsic worth in the curriculum of the public schools of to-day.

THE McKEE'S ROCKS STRIKE

PAUL U. KELLOGG



A CROATIAN LEADER
who speaks six languages.

There are elements in the strike at the McKee's Rocks plant of the Pressed Steel Car Company which, whatever the outcome, make it half-prophetic. It is a clean-cut illustration of the part which the Slavs may play in the industrial life of this country. It is the protest of the half-assimilated, the half-Americanized, the half-skilled against the very industrial policies which have brought them here and which, by the deploying of fresh migrations, tend to keep them all down to what the company calls "ordinary day labor." It is a later chapter than that of the stand of the native born against the foreigner, or even of the English speaking against those of alien tongue. It finds American workmen casting their lot with the Slavs, and it finds public opinion in the Pennsylvania steel district backing up their joint cause. "More important to Pittsburgh than her tonnage output," says the *Pittsburgh Sun*, "is the making of good citizens out of all who labor here. He is an optimist, indeed, who can see any good at all in such economic conditions as are bared in this strike and attendant rioting."

On the other hand, the strike may mark an equally determined trend in in-

dustrial administration. It was caused by the rigorous, logical extreme to which the employing company carried out what they conceive to be progressive policies in multiple production. My understanding is that during the period of hard times, they overhauled their equipment in such ways as to make them less and less dependent upon trained men. They established a track system by which even a crude working force practically drives itself in turning out cars, and a pooling system of payment which keeps the labor cost per car within a fixed charge to the company and which unloads the hazards of lost time and mistakes in construction largely upon the men. Apart from the vagrant charges of graft and abuse by foremen, which have been given more than their share of publicity, the strike has been over a sweeping reduction in wages (as against 1907) which the men laid up to this new system. Their grievances crystalized in the charge that they had no means of knowing what was coming to them on pay day, and that when they complained about it they were given neither rate nor redress.

For, along with their modern operating policies, the company cling to an inflexible assertion of the most ancient property rights as a basis for running their plant. They will not tolerate petitions or meet with representatives of the men, and they refuse to arbitrate. They hold that so long as a man accepts employment in their works, he must accept the terms they grant, or quit; that so long as he can quit work, the man who thinks himself under-paid has no grievance; and that (if one is to believe the

Photographs by George J. Reed, staff photographer of the *Pittsburgh Dispatch*.

Pittsburgh press), whether one man or a thousand quit work is none of the public's business. Its part is to keep the peace. That is what the company pays taxes for.

McKee's Rocks is a borough on the left bank of the Ohio river just below Pittsburgh. The Schöen works, now a plant of the Pressed Steel Car Company, are outside its limits in Stowe township—acres of low mill buildings. Adjoining are rows of box-like company houses, making up what is popularly known as Hunkeyville. Here, and in the closely built courts of McKee's Rocks, with their wooden balconies, rear buildings and fluttering clothes lines, live the Slavs. Not a few of the workmen, especially the Americans, live across the river, and come over in a ferry. The steel car busi-

ness is comparatively new. It was a hard sufferer during the bad times, when railroads were adding nothing to their rolling stock; but, since the first of the year, has responded quickly to changed conditions. Within the past week the Pennsylvania Railroad placed what was said to be the largest order in its history. Passenger, street, freight cars, and hoppers are made at the McKee's Rocks plant. The steel comes in sheets, is cut in lengths in the shearing department; heated and pressed into shape; marked and punched in the punching department; fitted together with bolts in the construction department; and put together and riveted in the erection department.

There are many minor branches of the work, where axles, trucks, upholstery, etc., are produced, but this untechnical description indicates the process of turning out the main staple—car bodies of sheet steel. These processes have reached a point where few skilled mechanics are demanded, compared with quick operators of heavy machines. The company claims a month's training will turn an immigrant into a riveter.

The plant was working half force, full time at the beginning of the strike. With the resumption of active operation early in the year, the track system was installed, and the pooling system given general application. A track runs the length of the erection aisle. The trucks are placed on the track at one end, electric cranes pick up the plates, piece by piece



THE McKEE'S ROCKS PLANT OF THE PRESSED STEEL CAR COMPANY.

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they are put together and riveted, and a completed car rolls off the other end of the track. There are perhaps twelve positions on this track and at each position a group of men who perform one step in the process of completing a car. Every position is allowed, say, twenty minutes. If the gang at position eight is slow, or has difficulties in getting out its stint, it holds up the whole procession, and every man in the earlier positions loses time. Gang 8 always wants car B from gang 7 the minute it is through with car A; and gang 7 always wants gang 8 to be through with car A by the time it finishes car B, so it can take car C from gang 6. If time wages were paid, and a



Courtesy *Pittsburgh Dispatch*.

THE STRIKERS ON INDIAN MOUND.

car erected in a stationary position, all the delays would fall on the company, and only constant prodding from a foreman would keep a loafer or a greener at high speed. By means of piece wages and a track down the erection aisle, one gang drives another. The installation of such a system, even in a few departments as was done at McKees' Rocks, was bound to provoke some friction at the start.

But pressing, punching, and riveting steel plates of all shapes, is not so easy to reduce to a piece rate standard, as the tonnage which runs through all departments of a steel mill; therefore, the piece-rate pooling system was installed. Formerly the men were paid, and some still are paid, by straight piece work either as individuals, or in small gangs of two or three men. A price card was posted so that by keeping track of how many pieces they turned out, they would know how much was coming to them at the end of a fortnight. Where two or three men worked together, this would be divided

most cases, I take it, all the riveters in a pool had the same rating; similarly all heaters, helpers, etc. What more each man made beyond his rating, depended on the gross work turned out by his whole pool.

Car orders vary greatly, but the parts which go into them, and the operations in putting these parts together, are fairly constant, and can be reduced to units. The company has experts who figured the piece rates which it would pay a pool for turning out the units or pieces going into an order.

To make this clear, take a sample pool of 6 men, whose account for a fortnight was given me at the company offices. They performed this work:

500 pieces at 10c each.....	\$50
100 pieces at 15c each.....	15
200 pieces at 20c each.....	40
300 pieces at 10c each.....	30
Total due this pool.....	\$135

The account with the men in the pool was as follows:

SAMPLE POOL.

Name.	Occupation.	Hours.	Hour Rate.	Earnings If Paid by Hour Rate.	Pool Piece-work Earnings.
John Smith	Riveter.....	140	.22	\$30.80	\$38.86
John Doe	Helper.....	100	.17	17.00	21.45
John Williams	Heater.....	75	.16	12.00	15.14
John Johnson	Riveter.....	50	.22	11.00	13.88
John Jones	Helper.....	100	.17	17.00	21.45
Samuel Jones	Heater.....	120	.16	19.20	24.22
Totals.....		585		\$107.00	\$135.00

between them according to the hourly rating of each.

The first attempt of the company was to lump all the men in general pools; but this was abandoned. At the time of the strike there were about 52 pools, ranging from 10 men to 150 each. The track system with 380 men was split into 3 pools. Each man in a pool was rated at so much an hour. This rating, the company states, was a minimum, which he would get in any event if he put in full time. In

The pool piece-work earnings of each man was apportioned in this way: If all men in the pool had been paid by their hourly ratings, they would have earned a total of \$107. But by handling 1100 pieces during the fortnight at piece rates, we have seen the pool was entitled to \$135 or \$28 excess. Divide \$135 by \$107 and you have 1.2617 for a pool rate, with which to multiply the day rate earnings of each man to get his share of the excess. Thus John Doe, helper, in

the sample pool, who worked 100 hours and was rated at 17c, was entitled not only to 100 x 17c, or \$17; but to 1,2617 x \$17, or \$21.45—his pool piece work earnings for the fortnight.

This is the pool-piece-work system in a nutshell. From a manager's standpoint it has a signal administrative advantage in making the men each other's monitors in keeping up speed and discipline. When the earnings of an entire pool are dependent on the output of every man in it, it is claimed the men will get rid of the drones, and develop spirit and team play.

The charges brought by the men against the way the Pressed Steel Car Company applied this system are many and definite. Since the strike, the company has offered to look into and adjust any case of individual grievance brought before it, but has flatly refused to take them up before an impartial board of arbitration.

In the first place, the men charge that they have no means of checking up what is coming to them. No piece rates are posted as under the old system. They don't know what the pool is going to get per piece for any of the work it does, nor the lump sum due it at the end of a fortnight. They claim the hourly rating is not a guaranteed minimum; that many of the men have received pay far under what they understood their rating to be, and that foremen and superintendents have refused to tell others what their rating was. Further, it is alleged, that where a lump sum is paid for a series of operations done by different gangs in completing a car, no money is paid any of the gangs until the whole series of operations is completed. As some pools have included as many as 300 men, it is manifestly impossible for the men to keep track. Their pay envelopes show on the outside merely the check number, and the amount inside—neither the man's rating, nor the number of hours he has worked, nor the bonus due him under the piece pool system, nor the amount arbitrarily deducted from his earnings by the company for insurance. Rumors that foremen put dummy names on the pool sheets have been current, and the charges of graft which have been common talk

for years in McKee's Rocks, are not of the sort to give the men off hand confidence in the accounting department. So far as checking up their pay envelopes goes, they claim they could be cheated out of their eye teeth by the company—or by any dub of a bookkeeper. And the company has taken the position that if they did not like what was in their pay envelopes they could quit.

In the second place, the men charge that the pool piece system as it has been put in force in Shoen is a heads-I-win-tails-you-lose proposition. The company never stands to pay on a car more than the fixed labor cost which it wants to pay. Thus, one gang may do its work on a certain part. If another gang spoils that part, the first gang loses also on the spoiled piece. "The pool's paying for it"—that is the cry in the mills. "Here's a gang foreman makes a mistake," said one of the strikers' committee to me. "Say he hasn't read his blue print properly, and the gang has to tear out the rivets. That's the fault of the company's agent, isn't it? Well the whole pool has to suffer. I know of a case where 15 or 20 sides of a car were mis-riveted because the foreman made such a mistake. 'O hell,' he said, 'that's in the pool.' Another time, the center-sills on some cars for a Mexican railroad, had to be cut apart to place the draw bars in. The men weren't to blame, but it went onto the pool. The pool's got to right all mistakes." Again, say 50 men are working in a pool. Every ten men operate a machine and one machine breaks down. It may be the fault of the men operating it, or it may be a flaw in the machine. In either case, their lost time comes out of the pool. On the track system not one gang, but all would be held up; and the pool would lose. The same if there's a shortage of material. These are the men's charges. Officers of the company told me that they didn't have shortages of material, that parts of the machines could be quickly replaced, and that if there was a long tie up of a gang, it would be laid off so the lost time would not fall on the whole pool. President Hoffstot, however, when I put the case of the 50 men, 5 machines and one broken, to him, could see nothing unjust in



LEADERS OF THE FOREIGN STRIKERS.

making the 40 other men bear the lost time instead of the company. "They want all the fat and none of the lean with it," he said. Those were part of the terms under which a man was employed in the Pressed Steel Car Company. The inference here again was that if he didn't like it, he could quit.

Besides not knowing what money was coming to them, and feeling that the company was taking some that was theirs, the men were sore at what they individually got. Here was a man with 5 years' experience, who claimed he drew out of the pool the same pay as a greenhorn, no matter how much more work he turned out; there a machine runner on a sill machine who two pays ago received less than the heater boy who worked with him; here again men running the same machines, the same hours, and drawing different pay. The strikers' committee collected a large number of pay envelopes, showing the amounts received, and taking the men's statements as to the number of hours they had worked. Some of these cases were published, and the company in reply stated that its books showed the men worked

less time than they claimed. The men had no books.

Let me quote, by way of illustration, a few of a number of cases collected by Alois B. Koukol, secretary of the National Slavonic Society, who interviewed men of several nationalities:—

Max Sharp, check 4617, Backer-up, pay June 15, 3 days, \$1.00. June 15-30, 13 days, \$24. Sharp stated that his master-riveter received only \$16 during the last named period, although he worked the same hours and his pay should have been the higher.

John Jakubik, check 156, Laborer in yard. Supposedly at \$1.33 per day, 14 days, \$15.

John Malinak, check 5099, Riveter, pay July 10, 4 days, \$3.50. Stated five other men working with him on the same job, received same pay for same period.

Danko Lacik, check 4092, Riveter, pay July 10, 10 days, 2 nights, \$6.50.

Stefan Humenuyi, check 3127, Puncher, pay June 15, 10½ days, \$14.50, July 1, 10½ days, \$14.95. This man worked in the shops for over 7 years and used to make, he says, at least \$30.00 under the old system.

Sobek Pelts, check 3462, worked 3 nights in May and did not draw any pay for it. He complained to foreman, and was sent to office. They referred him back to foreman, and he wound up the affair by saying, "Well, what do you think—that I am going to pay you from my own pocket?"



LEADERS AMONG THE AMERICANS.

Andy Chomisak, check 4028, Backer-up, 14 days, 7 hours, \$20.30. Another backer-up in same gang, worked same hours and got \$23.65 this pay. Chomisak complained, his foreman promised to "fix it up," but did not do anything.

This wage trouble was not in any one group. It ran from yard laborers up. A pressman, who had been 5 years in the works, told me he earned \$50, \$55 and \$60 a fortnight under the old system. His last few pays ranged from \$22 to \$28. How much these reductions in individual instances were due to the new pool-piece system (with which most of the men associated all of them), and how much to a sweeping cut in wages, which came at the same time as the resumption of work under the new system, an outsider cannot say. President Hoffstot freely admitted the cut in piece rates. "When all's said and done, it's supply and demand that fixes wages, the same as everything else," he said to me. "The 1907 rates have nothing whatever to do with what we pay the men to-day. We buy labor in the cheapest market." The market today in Pittsburgh after the

hard times, and with immigrants within call, is glutted.

To install a system for speeding up the major departments, to revolutionize the system of wage payments, and to cut wages, is rather a large commission for six months, when you are dealing with ten nationalities, and half as many thousand men. It would seem to demand both tact and decision. Neither have characterized the labor policy of the Pressed Steel Car Company. They have been not only extremely autocratic in making changes, but vacillating in carrying them out. Let me quote from an outside source the results of an inquiry which fortify my own impressions:—

The introduction of the pooling system was attended with changes and amendments from time to time which caused fluctuations in wages:—

At one time at least three departments were included in one pool, so that while one department might be turning out much work and the men earning good wages, the showing of this department and the wages of the men had to go to bring up the wages and showing of another department. Later these departments were divided into separate pools and the less industrious depart-

ments experienced a sudden and deserved, but unintelligible drop in wages.

In another department the men had not made as good wages under the pool system as was anticipated in fixing the rates for this department, and so the company at first added gratuitously a small per cent to each man's earnings. Subsequently this per cent was not added and the men experienced a sudden drop in wages.

Many instances of very small pay for a few days' work could be explained by a man having worked on a certain number of pieces which had not before pay day gone through the whole series of operations necessary before any credit could be given for the work done, or by a man having been inefficient on straight piece work. Add to all these possible sources of misunderstanding the deductions made from all wages to pay insurance and from some to pay rent, when the total from which the deduction was made was unknown, and there existed as fertile a field for dissatisfaction and dispute as could well be found in industry.

To object or suggest was disobedience. The men must take what they got without complaint or quit their jobs. If men were dissatisfied with the wages paid by the company this was sufficient reason for the company not to want these men to be any longer in the company's employ. If the men asked for explanations they were told that the pool system explained it all, and they got no more satisfaction.

In addition to these general grievances, the foreigners have had special ones, which center about the fact that they have hitherto had no quarter where their complaints against bosses, small pay, etc., would be listened to. This is denied by the company. But as against this is the fact that it was currently reported the week following the strike that a foreman in the department where the trouble came to a head, and the "house boss" in charge of the company houses at Schöenville, had both disappeared. Also, the company, after the strike broke out, engaged as head of a complaint bureau, a Slavic leader who had urged them to do this thing two years before, because of grafting and bribe taking among gang leaders and petty bosses. Under the name of the Fidelity Land Company the Pressed Steel Car Co. owns two hundred double houses in Schöenville. These rent for \$12 a month for four rooms, well ventilated, but without water in the houses. The rent money is taken out of the pay-envelope of the boarding-boss; and when this is not enough, the claim is

made that it has been taken out of his lodgers' pay. A laborer cannot afford to rent one of these houses unless he fills it with lodgers. That is their purpose—lodging houses. To quote Mr. Koukol:—

The house boss is the representative of the company who is in the most immediate touch with the foreign element. He is the "pasha" of Hunkeyville. The opportunity for extortion is ready to hand and the fact that a number of house bosses have been discharged indicates that the officials tried to cope with the situation but without success. One house boss had himself made justice of the peace, and in that position made money hand over fist. Another was a specialist in women. A third invented a new source of revenue. Whenever a wedding, or christening, or other festivity was held in one of the company houses, he collected \$6 as a special fee.

Similarly, a constant source of irritation to the foreigners, has been their treatment by the special company police. Mr. Koukol cites instances also where fees were demanded of ignorant workmen for certificates to secure benefits under the insurance system instituted by the company in May.

Enough has been said to indicate the temper with which the men resented what they believed to be the gouging of their pay envelopes. They were paid Saturday, July 10. On Monday, many complaints were made to time keepers and foremen. About 40 men in passenger department No. 2 refused to work unless they were told their rate of pay. They came back on Tuesday and were discharged. On Tuesday, 600 men in the erection department went out. The company says they demanded 30 cents an hour and an 8-hour day. The men state they wanted a working understanding, so that they could know what was coming to them; and that they couldn't get any satisfaction. Men from the shearing and pressing departments followed. The men claim that there was no dirty work; the pressmen stood by their work till their heats were drawn. At noon, Wednesday, the company closed the plant, claiming that the strikers were threatening their property. The men in the mechanical and other departments thereupon joined cause with the strikers. The Americans organized a general committee, the foreigners also; and the following week the two amalgamated to



THE STATE POLICE.

some extent—an executive committee of five foreigners, with a chairman, working with an executive committee of five Americans with their chairman. The company refused to meet with the men, or to arbitrate. They denied the existence of a strike. The men had their photographs taken 3,000 strong to prove there was a strike, wanted to arbitrate, and asked the Pittsburgh Civic Commission to investigate the truth of their claims: Their demands simmered down to the abolition of the pooling system and a return to the 1907 piece rate.

The reports of violence have been as greatly exaggerated as the reports published by some newspapers, that the Pressed Steel Car Company kills a man a day in its works. Ten men only were

killed in these works the year the Pittsburgh Survey studied accidents in Allegheny county. The company, however, has a general reputation for consideration of Hunkie-life, very much in keeping with the contempt it accords its employes industrially—as machine tenders, rather than men. These employes it had gathered from the four ends of the earth; and it had seen to it that there was no trace of unionism among them. The strike was of unorganized men, and at the start no man had any more control over the action of his neighbors than I have of a crowd on the street. State police and deputy sheriffs were called in; stones and shots were exchanged; a score of men were jailed and five men lay in the Ohio Valley Hospital.



ONE SEGMENT OF THE CIRCLE FROM THE SPEAKERS' PLATFORM.

I visited McKees' Rocks a week later, and throughout that week remarkable order had been observed by the strikers. They had held great outdoor meetings daily without surveillance or outburst of any sort. These meetings were in the open, a mile from the works, on a ridge of ground overlooking the Ohio river, known as the Indian Mound. Here one, two, three thousand men, sat on the ground in a circle, while men on a saw horse, with a little American flag stuck on a stick, addressed them in four, five and six languages. However it started, and however it was to end, this was on that day a strike of peace—of the nations together. And not the least wonderful element in the situation was the five or six men of the American committee, in the circle of foreign faces. They had never mixed with the Hunkies before. Some of them had not struck. Most of them had been repair men and electricians, not affected by the pooling system. They were there with the Slavs. "They have got the whole of us to fight

now," was the way C. A. Wise, the chairman of the American committee, put it. [He was in the axle department, and not affected by the pools.] "We are trying to be men among men."

The position of the company has been an equally clear cut expression of a different human relationship. In a statement given to the press, President F. N. Hoffstot said:—

Some 600 of our workmen have seen fit to quit their employment. That is all right. If a man is dissatisfied with his work, or with his hours, or with his wages, it is his privilege to quit, but when he says another man who wants to work, can't work, and won't let him work, why then that is a different matter. . . . There is nothing to arbitrate in the present difficulty. The officers of the company will not meet with any committee of the men. . . . The jobs are there for the men as soon as they want to go back to work, but the 600 who started all the trouble cannot work for the company another day.

The men then have made a pool of their own. The very deadlock of the strike is half prophetic. It throws into relief the forces which, during the next decade, are likely to determine the standard of living among immigrant wage-earners in the Pittsburgh district.



"THE RIGHT TO QUIT."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY vs. WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

A REVIEW OF THE INTER-STATE CONFERENCE ON INDUSTRIAL
ACCIDENTS, HELD AT ATLANTIC CITY

HENRY R. SEAGER

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Midsummer and Atlantic City are not usually associated with aggressive plans for social betterment, but that may be because western enterprise is seldom active along the Jersey coast. Certainly the success of the conference on Employers' Liability *v.* Workmen's Compensation for Industrial Accidents that was held on July 29 and 30, a few steps away from the allurements of the "board walk," left no doubt in the minds of those present that the time was propitious and the place well chosen for such a gathering. The conference was called together by the Minnesota Employees' Compensation Commission on the initiative of its chairman, H. V. Mercer of Minneapolis. Its purpose was to enable the members of that commission and representatives of the Wisconsin Joint Committee on Industrial Insurance, the New York State Commission on Employers' Liability and Unemployment, and other interested organizations to come together and talk over remedies for the present haphazard and notoriously inadequate methods of providing for the victims of industrial accidents in the United States. In conformity with this design a program had been drawn up and a list of speakers prepared, but it is no disparagement either to program or speakers to say that after the conference was started no machinery was needed to keep it in motion. Up to the moment when a colored porter came to tell the chairman that "the station buss is waiting for you, sah," questions flew thick and fast and discussion was continuous and animated.

In addition to the three members of the Minnesota commission—Mr. Mercer, a lawyer; George M. Gillette, an employer, and W. E. McEwen, the state commissioner of labor—there were present Senator John J. Blaine and As-

semblyman Wallace Ingalls, representing the Wisconsin committee; George W. Smith and Prof. Henry R. Seager, representing the New York State Commission; Charles P. Neill, commissioner of labor of the United States; Dr. Lee K. Frankel, representing the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company; Miles M. Dawson, actuary and joint author with Dr. Frankel of a forthcoming report on foreign systems of industrial insurance and workmen's compensation prepared for the Sage Foundation; a representative of the American Bridge Company, and more than a dozen representatives of insurance companies, who contributed much valuable information and many helpful suggestions. As the first business of the conference Dr. Neill was appropriately chosen chairman and Mr. Mercer, secretary.

The most significant fact brought out at the first session, when the question discussed was the "desirability of changing the basis of recovery for injuries received in the course of employment from that of negligence or fault of the employer to that of risk of the industry or insurance," was the absolute unanimity of opinion among those present. All agreed in condemning as highly unsatisfactory existing employers' liability laws. All concurred in approving a system under which injured workmen or those dependent upon them should be entitled to compensation on a definite scale irrespective of the question of employers' negligence. A basis for further discussion was thus readily established and through all the sessions not a voice was raised in favor of a continuance of the present system.

The real constructive work of the conference began with the second session when the "possibility" of a system of

workmen's compensation or insurance in the United States was considered. It was at this point that Mr. Mercer presented a carefully thought out argument in support of the view that a reasonable system of workmen's compensation could be justified as a legitimate exercise of the police power and would therefore be constitutional in the American states. Based as it was on an exhaustive review of the decisions of the United States Supreme Court involving the question of the scope of the police power, as well as on a sympathetic understanding of the social interests at stake, this argument did much to hearten those to whom the constitutional obstacle had seemed most formidable. The general conclusion of the conference as to the constitutional question was well summed up by Mr. Ingalls. He said, speaking as a lawyer, "the only thing for us to do is to get the opinions of the best lawyers in our different states and compare them, but even then we shall be far enough from knowing what the courts will decide."

It was in this second session, also, that the first marked difference of opinion found expression. The "possibility" of securing a workmen's compensation law in the United States depends, obviously, on whether public opinion can be brought to demand such a law as well as on the attitude of the courts after its enactment. The chairman of the conference expressed the opinion that no plan would be or should be satisfactory to workmen that required them to surrender altogether their common law right to sue the negligent employer. Mr. Gillette, on the other hand, was emphatic in the belief that employers would oppose any general compensation scheme that did not incidentally relieve them of their common law liability. As a possible compromise it was suggested that the definition of "criminal negligence" might be made more sweeping so that the careless employer would be liable to society for his negligence even though relieved of any special financial liability to his employes. It was also pointed out that insurance companies could be relied upon to penalize the careless employer by charging him high rates and that in this way negligence would be subject to a further

check. Mr. McEwen, speaking for workmen, was of the opinion that wage-earners would be willing to forego their common law rights if only they were assured adequate compensation, irrespective of the question of employers' negligence. The difficulty of reconciling employers and employes to a reasonable compensation law, though real, was thus dismissed as not insurmountable. The consensus of opinion touching the question of "possibility" was clearly that the legislative obstacles to be overcome are less serious than the constitutional.

Having agreed as to the "desirability" of a comprehensive compensation law and having discussed the "possibility" of securing it, the conference proceeded in its third and fourth sessions to consider practical aspects of the question. Dr. Frankel and Mr. Dawson summarized in a very interesting and instructive way the information they had collected in regard to foreign systems and their opinions as to the adaptability of different features of those systems to the United States. The British, German, Austrian, Swedish, Dutch, and French systems were passed in review and the plan under consideration in Switzerland was described. Both speakers agreed that it would be possible to devise a system for the United States—"waving constitutional objections," as they say in college debates—that would be better than any one of the foreign systems they had studied. The features of such a system which they made prominent were the substitution of weekly or monthly stipends during the entire period of disability for lump-sum payments, great flexibility in the machinery that employers should be allowed to devise for meeting their liability, coupled with rigid insistence that the liability should be adequately met, provision through the state for the protection of employes the satisfaction of whose claims might be balked by the insolvency either of the employer or of the insurance company on which he depended, and, finally, encouragement to all measures calculated to reduce the number and seriousness of accidents.

At the close of his address Mr. Dawson advanced the view that the plan that is after all least open to constitutional

objection in the United States is that, which, to many, would seem the most radical, that is, outright state insurance supported by the taxation of the employers whose employes are to be benefited. He based this opinion on the sweeping nature of the taxing power in comparison with the police power on which any simple compensation plan must, it was generally conceded, rest. The adjournment of the conference on the conclusion of Mr. Dawson's address prevented any discussion of this interesting suggestion.

At the same time that all phases of the compensation problem were being discussed in general meeting, a committee appointed early in the session was actively at work drawing up a plan which would insure similar and more representative conferences in the future. Before adjournment the conference adopted the report of this committee and continued it in existence as an executive body. It was specially authorized to arrange for a second conference sometime during the coming winter to which the governors of all of the states should be asked to send representatives, to provide for the publication of the proceedings of the first conference and to further in other ways the objects for which it was called together. An interesting provision, which it was agreed should be inserted in the by-laws to control the action of future conferences, was to the effect that resolutions committing the conference to any particular principle or policy should be deemed out of order. This was intended, of course, to preserve the character of future gatherings as conferences pure and simple. As finally constituted the

executive committee consisted of Charles P. Neill, chairman; H. V. Mercer, secretary, and Messrs. Dawson, Gillette, Sanborn, Ingalls, Mitchell and Seager.

If my experience is like that of others interested in social work, such a conference as I have described is apt to be followed by a reaction in confidence and enthusiasm. When the "contagion of numbers" has ceased to exert its sway and the ever-present forces of indifference, ignorance and conservatism have reasserted their dominance, the world seems very big and the individual, or even the score of individuals now scattered to their widely separated homes, very little. The last impression of this conference which I wish to record is that its importance looms larger in my mind rather than smaller as I get farther and farther away from it. When I think of the character of the men who came together, of their accurate knowledge of the evils to be corrected, and of their enthusiasm for the task which they have undertaken, I cannot but believe that a real beginning has been made toward bringing our states up to the standard set for us in the field of social legislation by European countries. And since our backwardness in this field has been due more to our slighter need for such legislation in the past than to indifference to the demands of social justice, I believe that the movement now started will soon acquire a momentum that must sweep all obstacles before it. It is this promise of future achievement rather than anything that was said or done at the sessions that remains in my mind as the most significant aspect of this first conference.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

CIVIC FEDERATION AND THE UNIONS

It looks as though the National Civic Federation had clearly recognized the public necessity for the choice between trade unionism and state socialism, and had deliberately espoused the cause of the trade unions, as consonant with American institutions and as the antidote for the socialistic propaganda. The

July number of the *National Civic Federation Review* is about equally devoted to the support of positions taken by the American Federation of Labor and warnings against the spread of socialism.

There is an ingeniously "fetching" arraignment of the Fabian socialists' policy of "tricking" some of the influential London newspapers into aiding them to ful-

fil the purpose of their society to "socialize" the press, politics, the universities and the church. In proof thereof, Bernard Shaw's Fabian Tract No. 41 is quoted:

In 1888 it only cost us twenty-eight post cards to convince the newly born *Star* newspaper that London was aflame with Fabian socialism. Before the capitalist proprietors woke up to our game and cleared us out, the competition of *The Star*, which was immensely popular under what I may call the Fabian regime, had encouraged the morning daily, *The Chronicle*, to take up the running.

Similar methods of permeating the party organizations are detailed. The Fabian Society in Balliol College, Oxford, is cited in proof of the progress of the propaganda within university circles. Its dons and students are pictured as joining, in cap and gown, with the local socialists to make the classic walls of their famous college re-echo with the hymn of the revolution.

In addition to these tactics, in America, the so-called "Christian Socialist Fellowship" is cited as having issued a manifesto signed by 161 American clergymen representing twenty-four denominations, the purpose of which is declared to be "to permeate churches, denominations and other religious institutions with the social message of the Bible, to show that socialism is the economic expression of the Christian life." The Rand School of Social Science is described as having started in New York city with 240 enrolled students, and having for one of its objects the education of teachers for the dissemination of socialist principles both in day schools and Sunday schools. This article is followed by another on the socialistic propaganda among the Jews, entitled Gospel of Despair to Jewish Immigrants, alleged to have been written by an East Side Russian Jew. His claim is that it shatters previous convictions of right and wrong, and yet that high regard is held for anything heard from a socialist speaker, or read in a socialist newspaper.

The *Review* flanks these warnings against socialism with reassurances that "the leaders of the American Federation of Labor are thoroughly awake to the dangers of this 'insidious propaganda.'" Representatives of the leading trade un-

ions are extensively quoted as in avowed opposition to socialism. And then pages of the *Review* are devoted to President Gompers's address at the convention of the Farmers' National Union, in which he made common cause between the farmers' union and the trade union. John Mitchell, formerly president of the United Mine Workers of America, and now chairman of the trade agreement department of the National Civic Federation, is also extensively quoted in his "exposition and interpretation of the trade union movement" at Yale University. The decision of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia modifying Justice Gould's injunction against the American Federation of Labor officials is treated at length as "a great plea for free speech and a free press." To cap the climax, an article appears by John Mitchell on A Policy of Retrogression, in which the National Association of Manufacturers is taken to task for "its eighteenth century stand toward organized labor," as reiterated in the inaugural address of its new president which we describe and quote in another paragraph.

Surely this is a most significant attitude to be assumed by the publication of the National Civic Federation which numbers among its officers and executive committee Seth Low as president, Isaac N. Seligman as treasurer, President Taft, Secretary MacVeagh, former Secretary of State Root, Andrew Carnegie, August Belmont, and a score more of equally representative men in the commercial, professional and public life of the country, who have for years associated themselves with another score of men who are at the head of the American Federation of Labor and its constituent trade unions.

WAR AGAINST ORGANIZED LABOR

This defense of organized labor by the official publication of the National Civic Federation was called forth by the address of John Kirby, Jr., in accepting the presidency of the National Association of Manufacturers which is published in its magazine, *American Industries*, for June 1, and defended by him in the issue for June 15. The public, as well as the trade unionists federated in

the American Federation of Labor, awaited with interest the choice and policy of the successor of D. M. Parry and James W. Van Cleave in the leadership of the manufacturers' national association. Under their administrations the issues between the two organizations had been squarely raised and finally lodged before the courts. There they might have been safely left to the pending adjudication in the courts of the District of Columbia, and to the Supreme Court of the United States, which will render the final decision involving the power of injunction, the boycott, and the standing of Mr. Gompers and his associates before the law.

It was hoped by many, who stand only for the public interests involved in the relations between these organizations of employers and employees, that the manufacturers would see and seize the opportunity to select a representative man for president and announce a policy whose more conciliatory and constructive spirit and aim might bring together the reasonable, practical men on both sides, for their own and the public good. This hope is bitterly disappointed both by the selection and utterance of the new president.

The occasion for the defense, mildly enough made by John Mitchell, is sufficiently manifest in the bitterly uncompromising and indiscriminate attack upon the entire body of American trade federation. Mr. Kirby's evidently honest contention that the American federation has been committed to illegal policies and acts could not have been avoided in representing those supporting that charge before the courts.

But the sober sense of the American people is hardly prepared to accept the sweeping condemnation of American organized labor as in "rebellion against constitutional government." It is well, however, to try this very question at the bar of American justice, the final decisions of whose courts none of the defendants will even dispute. But to refer to them collectively as "this beast with seven heads and ten horns that was stalking up and down the earth, demanding that no man should work, buy or sell, save he that had the name or mark of the beast upon his right hand or in his fore-

head", savors more of a fanatical appropriation of apocalyptic rhetoric than is looked for in the statement of a manufacturers' association. To follow this designation with an appeal to "this beast" to "choose broader minded men as officers, whose minds are free from the spirit of hatred and discontent," besides being slightly incongruous, will scarcely seem effective to any one who has ever been aware of the psychology of human kind.

Not all who justify and sympathize with Mr. Kirby's demand for the "elimination of intimidation, coercion and murder from their catechism," will expect trade unions at just such a summons to cease to be "militant" and become only "societies for mutual improvement", so as to be recognized as "legitimate." The restriction of output, the limitation of apprenticeship, and the open and closed shop are issues which have divided honest men through all industrial history, but to differ about them is hardly equivalent to "compounding with felony." Those who insist upon distinguishing things that differ do not associate "militant unionism and socialism", nor "Gompers—Debs" together in their thought, much less identify them in their speech.

Mr. Kirby falls into the socialists' own "class-conscious" self-confidence when he says, "We can take care of the labor question without any of this philanthropic aid which these people think they are giving for the benefit of humanity." But he "reckons without his host" in imagining that the public will not more and more insist upon taking a hand to prevent and settle industrial disputes, to every one of which it is always the third and greatest party. Moreover the public will continue to connect its philanthropy and religion with industrial conditions which thwart both, as well as to use all its philanthropic and religious forces for humanizing industrial relations. Freedom of speech and liberty of thought are too essential in modern religion and philanthropy to be debarred from "women's clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations and every philanthropic and religious organization" whose financial supporters are warned by Mr. Kirby against allowing them to "harbor"

or "associate with" representatives of organized labor, as do "prominent" people "who know better or ought to",—presumably those associated with Messrs. Gompers and Mitchell in the National Civic Federation.

Surely such passionate abuse of widely respected men and boycott-like intimidation of educational, social and religious agencies dependent upon the financial support of business men, cannot fail to destroy the effect of many just and true things Mr. Kirby said, and also greatly weaken the influence of the National Manufacturers' Association in shaping public opinion. It is with sincere regret, therefore, that we record this renewed declaration of war by President Kirby, in terms so much fiercer and more indiscriminate than even his predecessors used. The National Manufacturers' Association has lost a strategic opportunity to promote industrial peace and prosperity. Had they chosen as their leader a man, human enough to put himself in the other fellow's place, sensible enough to be fair, practical enough to be conciliatory and big enough to be constructive, they might have led the way to common ground on which men can stand together without loss of manhood, they might have promoted peace with honor.

EXIT SHEA—GOOD RIDDANCE

The sentence of Cornelius Shea to an imprisonment of not less than five nor more than twenty-five years for his atrocious assault on the poor young woman bewitched by his "masterfulness," eliminates a brutal criminal from the teamsters' union, whose leadership he so long disgraced. He thus receives only in part his just deserts, long since overdue. A larger dose of justice should have been administered to him by Illinois law for his treason both to labor and the commonwealth in his outrageous incitement and leadership of the teamsters' strike in Chicago, in which nineteen were killed and 462 were injured, over a million dollars were lost by the union in wages and benefits, and the city's business was paralyzed for two months. Employers and employes who have had to do with him have good cause to endorse the terms in which Judge

Foster, in General Sessions at New York, sentenced him to the state prison at Sing Sing:

Your services to humanity are urged here in your behalf because you have been active in the cause of organized labor. I allow no one to surpass me in admiration of the dignity of labor. I believe that it is the right of labor to organize. But there is a prejudice in this community which we must admit exists against organized labor because men such as you dominate it with your brutal methods and conduct and offensive personality until part of the community has come to look upon organized labor as a society of brutes that bring about victories by brute methods. That is all wrong. There is no one more honorable or honest than the average laboring man.

You gained your ascendancy in the cause of labor by your brutal methods, and your brutal conduct has been abundantly manifested in your private life. I believe that I am helping the cause of organized labor by ridding it of such a person as you and sending you to state prison.

SAMUEL GOMPERS ABROAD

Representatives of American newspapers are cabling the first impressions which the Paris press is expressing of Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor. His tour to observe conditions of labor abroad, undertaken by direction of the federation's last convention, is said to be exciting much interest at the French capital, especially on account of the industrial unrest which has so long been at an acute stage there. Not only his opinions, which are sought by interviews, but even his personal manners and attire have attracted wide comment. Much surprise is manifested because the veteran American labor leader appears "well-groomed, with the quiet, dignified manners of a clergyman," and because he travels with his wife and daughter whose demeanor and appearance comport with the respectability of the hotels in which they are found. By the humiliating misrepresentation of all American life in almost all foreign newspapers, the French reporters and editors were evidently more prepared for a comparison than a contrast with the type of Parisian labor agitators who are described in this connection as "noisy and careless about their personal appearance, and when away from home, glad to share a bedroom with one of their associates." The interviews, however,

seem to have been confined to a comparison of the American Federation of Labor with the *Confederation Generale du Travail*, much to the credit of the American organization.

THE IGNOMINY OF "TIPPING"

Mr. Gompers's impressions of labor conditions abroad will be of much interest to most of his fellow countrymen at home, if they are as incisively descriptive of actual facts as were his ideas on the tipping system. This was the first thing to grate upon his American sense of the dignity of labor. But while in recoil from the difficulties thrown in the way of his first attempt to ascertain the facts regarding this and other labor conditions aboard ship, he wisely reached the tentative conclusion that "the way to truth is often blocked by polite attention." And he also found himself wondering whether the superficial character of many so-called "investigations" is not due to this blockade of politeness.

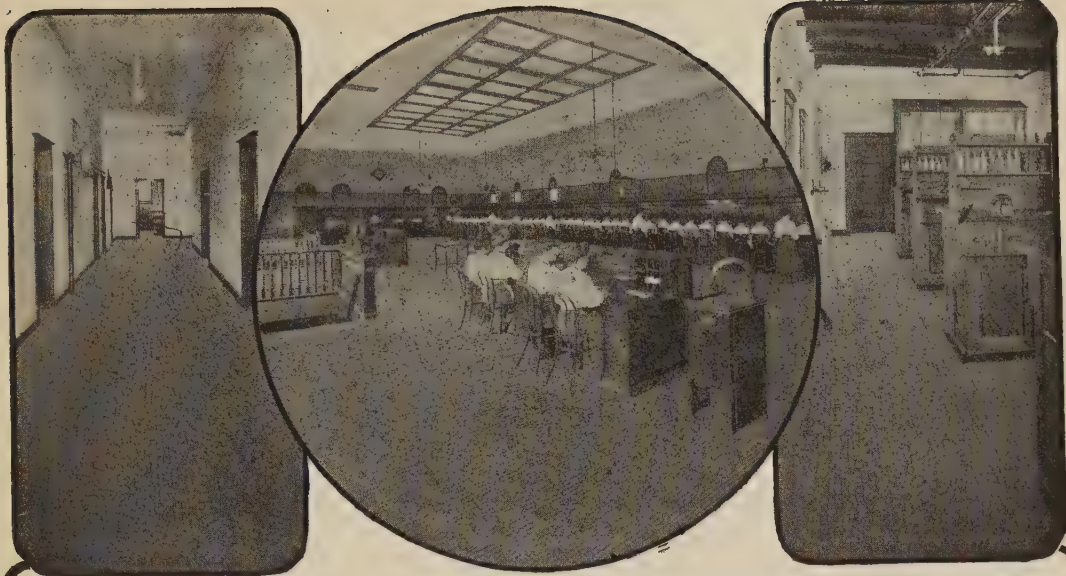
Nevertheless he found "tipping" one of the firmest institutions in certain spheres of English industrial life. He notes the loss of manliness in the "tipped-servants" as indicated in their "vocabulary of lip gratitude" "gestures of obsequiousness" and "habitual air of profound deference." He truly observes that those who have the least heart in the practice of this profession of deceit are most successful in forcing "a series of subtle and unnecessary attentions" upon their intended victims. After inquiry, he believed that the great majority who are forced to practice tipping by the deliberate policy of certain employers to force the public to supplement the less than living wages they pay for tipped service, would gladly escape from a practice which is as unhappy as it is degrading. But Mr. Gompers thinks, "Not until organized in the protective fold of the trade union movement," will signs go up in ocean steamships and elsewhere, as they have already been posted in certain English restaurants, "No tips allowed." "Then only," he affirms, "will the relations between passenger and steward be those worthy of man to man, each honoring his own position and the position of the other, and each dealing with the other without deceit—a rela-

tionship which, though not impossible, is difficult now."

CHICAGO UNIONS DESERT BRIGAND

Signs happily multiply that the brigandage of Martin B. Madden's mastery over the Chicago building trades reached the beginning of its end, as we predicted, when the jury disagreed in trying him for conspiracy. Already application has been made to the American Federation of Labor for a charter to establish a Chicago branch of its building trades department. Unions aggregating 20,000 members, hitherto "associated" by him for his own purposes, have publicly renounced him and his irregular retainers, and will affiliate with the responsible organization of their trades which is about to be consummated by the American Federation of Labor. These unions include the Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, the Marble Workers, Elevator Constructors, Structural Iron Workers, Hoisting Engineers, Plumbers and Steam Fitters and the Sheet Metal Workers. It is significant that the last named union has broken with their boss because it is a repudiation of its own leader who was indicted and tried with Madden for the crimes with which they are still charged under pending indictments. Increasing discord, breaking out into violent altercations, are also reported within the unions that have the cowardice still to consent to be ruled by Madden's "strong-armed" ruffianism. Meanwhile State's Attorney Wayman is proceeding again to try this outlaw upon the second of nearly a score of indictments which the grand jury has presented against him to the Criminal Court of Cook county.

We keep our readers posted thus in detail about this case, for it may fairly be regarded as an instance typical of the tendency among the older and stronger unions surely, if slowly to repudiate bad leadership and reassert their integrity and their loyalty to legitimate unionism. It also proves that regularly and fully organized unions are safer than irregularly and partially organized unions from the viewpoint of their members, employers and the public.



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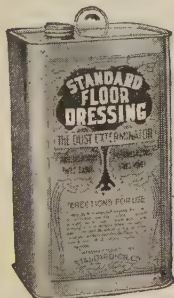
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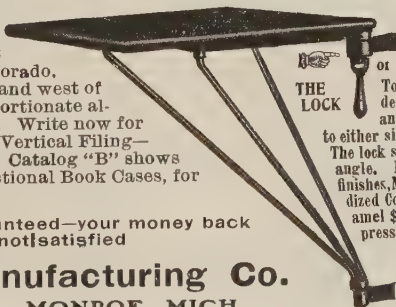
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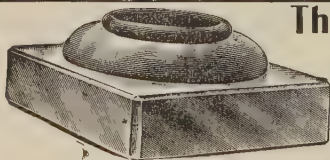
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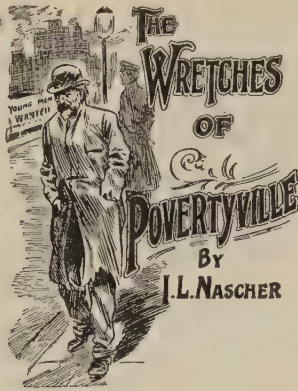
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In addition to the 28 or 29 regular lectures scheduled in each of the two sections of the Summer School and given by almost as many different prominent workers, the classes enjoyed the advantages of thirteen special lectures or conferences with experienced leaders in social work. The social features of the session included a reception by the Alumni Association, an informal tea at the National Arts Club arranged by the class itself and with one of its members as hostess. An organization of the class was effected and a fund subscribed sufficient for the establishment of a \$75 scholarship for next year.

The academic year in the school closed on May 28 with informal closing exercises and addresses by the Director, Dr. Lindsay, and Mr. Owen R. Lovejoy, Dr. Orlando F. Lewis, and Mr. Lawrence Veiller. 118 students were enrolled, including 4 also engaged in the work of the Bureau of Social Research, whose full staff numbered ten. Sixty-two had college training and 44 college degrees. Sixty per cent were without previous experience in social work, but 70 per cent of the class expressed an intention to enter social work in a professional capacity.

The diploma for the full year's course was awarded to twenty students and special certificates to seven more. Honorable mention was given to a thesis by Miss Celia Gassen on "Facilities for Higher Education for Working People in Manhattan" and also to one by Rev. Floyd S. Leach on "Individual Characteristics Contributory to Vagrancy."

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Assistant Superintendent United Charities.—James Mullenbach, superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House, Chicago, has resigned to become assistant superintendent of the United Charities. Mr. Mullenbach is a graduate of Fargo College and of Chicago Theological Seminary. He has spent two years in Germany in special study. He is a member of the City Club and of the Social Service Club.

Agricultural Colonies.—One of the initial difficulties in establishing agricultural colonies is the finding of suitable land for such purposes, in large and consecutive tracts. The Jewish Agricultural Aid Society of Chicago, has recently secured through the efforts of its secretary, Rabbi A. R. Levy, 32,400 acres in the southern part of Georgia, for the settlement of Jewish families who wish to make farming their vocation. This large acreage lies practically in one body and its soil is adaptable for cotton, tobacco, every kind of vegetable and small fruits. Two lines of railroad run through the tract with stations on the land and a third railroad runs parallel with it for twenty miles. The shut-in feeling of the city dweller who first takes up his residence on the farm should thus be obviated.

Jewish Workers Move.—The retirement of Dr. Samuel Shindler as superintendent of the Leopold Morse Orphan Home of Boston removes from active service one who has gained reputation for philosophical attainments no less than as a tried executive. He will be succeeded by Henry Wolf, for several years headworker of the Council Educational Alliance of Cleveland, and in turn Mr. Wolf's place will be filled by Max Carton and Miss Rosa Fried, who are soon to be married. Miss Fried, who is a graduate of Barnard College, has been headworker of the Daughters of Israel Settlement House and Home for Working Girls in Baltimore and before that made special investigations among working girls for the Council of Jewish Women and the Inter-municipal League.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

THE RIOTING AT McKEE'S ROCKS

Fierce rioting broke out at the Pressed Steel Car Works in McKee's Rocks on Sunday night, August 22. For the past week or two the company has been bringing men into the plant and trouble had arisen as each boat load or train load of strike breakers arrived. The strike-breakers were brought under the guard of the state constabulary and the deputy sheriffs. A commissary department was started within the works and Negroes and other helpers had been employed to do the cooking and keep things going for the men. The situation for the strikers gradually grew worse and they became more sullen and angry as they saw the strike gradually being broken by imported workmen. Over Saturday night and Sunday a great many of the deputy sheriffs and the Negro cooks, and also some of the strike breakers left the works in order to go to their homes and visit their families. The strikers met the cars as they came through McKee's Rocks Sunday evening, and those who could explain why they were on the cars were allowed to go, but the others were held up, and in a great many cases badly beaten. A fight between a deputy sheriff and the strike breakers resulted in the former's death and this blood-letting started the crowd on its quest. In the melee which followed two troopers and three strikers were killed outright, and a number of others fatally wounded. The troopers' fierce charges and desperate tactics soon cleared the streets, and as we go to press Schoenville and the neighboring territory is under martial law.

At present the strikers are sullen and nothing more is needed to precipitate further rioting and bloodshed than a leader and another spark. Various attempts have been made during the past week to destroy the works. The troopers are patrolling the streets and every one with

arms found upon him is arrested and sent to the improvised lockup. Another troop of the state constabulary has been called so that an adequate force will be on hand to take care of the situation.

In the opinion of one on the ground, the company at the present time seems to have the upper hand, as the strikers are gradually disintegrating, some of them taking other jobs, and the rest getting more and more desperate as is well shown by their willingness to attempt almost any violence in order to secure their desires. The company is still standing pat as far as dealing with the strikers. It is thought by those best informed that 800 to 1,000 men are now in the plant.

PLAYGROUND CLUBS IN PASSAIC, NEW JERSEY

Passaic, New Jersey, had an interesting experience in playground organization this summer. The club idea was applied in a new way under the direction of William H. Harper of New York. It was the plan, from the beginning, to conduct the playgrounds so that spontaneity would be encouraged. On July 6, the opening day, with five hundred boys of all sorts and conditions on hand, Mr. Harper announced that there would be but three rules of consequence on the playgrounds: "A double report from the starter's gun means assemble in front of the clubhouse. Listen to directions. Do as you have been told."

Under this plan four sets of clubs were organized, twenty-four boys in each club. The clubs were divided into boys weighing eighty, ninety-five, 115 and over 115 pounds. It was announced that clubs would compete against clubs in any games that were held, every member of the twenty-four competing against every other member of another club of twenty-four in his own class.

As soon as a club was organized, it received twenty-four points, and as the season advanced, points were added for

attendance, participation in games and field day duties. The records were posted on the playground bulletin. At the end of each week and when the month is over, every boy in the winning club in each division of eighties, ninety-fives, one hundred-fifteens, and "overweights," receives a prize. That means that once a month ninety-six boys are rewarded.

The daily attendance throughout the season has been over 900 and there has been neither loss, breakage, nor theft reported during the entire summer. Judge Dalrymple, the police justice in charge of the Juvenile Court, said at the directors' meeting that while in years past children's cases formed the greater part of his summer work, this year he has had no trouble at all from this source.

NATIONAL FRATERNAL CONGRESS IN BOSTON

The twenty-third annual meeting of the National Fraternal Congress was held in the Hotel Somerset, Boston, last week. The congress is composed of representatives of fraternal beneficiary associations which, originally formed for religious, charitable or social purposes, have developed into insurance organizations offering whole life protection, with a lodge system, a ritual and a representative form of government. There are in the United States nearly 600 associations of this kind with over 7,000,000 adult members. Without exaggeration it may be said that 20,000,000 persons in this country are interested in the sound development and progress of fraternal insurance. Associations affiliated with the National Fraternal Congress are the oldest and strongest organizations both numerically and financially. Each one either has to have adequate rates of premiums not lower than those provided in the National Fraternal Congress table of mortality or at least has to declare its belief in that table.

The requirement for eligibility to membership and the campaign for adequate rates conducted by the National Fraternal Congress led to a split within its own ranks and to the formation of a rival organization of Associated Fraternities (1901). After a few years of

struggle both organizations entered into negotiations. A "uniform bill" that should place all associations on equal terms and that should condition the operation upon the adoption of some standard mortality table was discussed at length by both organizations, but the outcome was an appearance of a third association in 1908—The United Fraternities.

While the quarrel of the three goddesses for supremacy is going on and the whole fraternal beneficiary system is undergoing a severe process of reconstruction and readjustment, the progressive insurance companies, in the attempt to meet the demands of industrial classes for cheap insurance, have invaded the territory by introducing a "group insurance" bill into various legislatures, which shall permit them to issue policies to trade unions, clubs or benevolent organizations, at special rates. The invaders have been repulsed from all states except Minnesota, New Jersey and Maine.

The proceedings of the National Fraternal Congress in Boston reflected all these various struggles. "I have been fighting for adequate rates for many years and do not feel tired of it; nor do I want to see the end of the fight," said a veteran fraternalist. And the congress deeply impressed, immediately repudiated the requirement as to the eligibility to membership.

Various papers pertaining to the up-building of the fraternal beneficiary system, its actuarial, medical, educational and ethical characteristics, were read in the general meetings and in the four sections. Of interest to the reader of this magazine may be the attitude of the convention toward the anti-tuberculosis campaign. The delegation from the congress to the International Tuberculosis Congress, held in Washington, presented an extensive report on the work of the latter and urged each individual member to co-operation with the National Association for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

A proposition was brought before the congress to co-operate in the study which a commission appointed by the Associated Fraternities last fall is making. It is an investigation of occupations of

members of fraternal associations, of occupational mortality and disability, a study which, having primarily an actuarial end, goes far beyond, and being undertaken on a large scale and conducted by a man of such wide knowledge as M. M. Dawson, promises to enrich theoretical as well as applied social science. The consideration of this proposition for co-operation, was postponed until the next convention, to be held in Detroit, in August, 1910.¹

SCHOOL OF ETHICS AT MADISON, WIS.

The Summer School of Ethics, formerly held at Plymouth, Mass., and later in informal sessions in the Adirondacks, recently closed its second meeting at Madison, Wisconsin. The first, that of 1908, was marked by large attendance, deep interest and an important aftermath of correspondence from those specially concerned with the moral education of children, youth and adults. The session of 1909 attracted larger audiences, a more intelligent interest, and gave indication of still further enlargement and consolidation of ethical leadership in social advance.

The state University of Wisconsin, which has been fitly described of late as "not only a state university but the soul of a state," again vindicated its claim to a pioneer position among institutions of higher learning by offering generous hospitality to the School of Ethics, thus proving that spiritual values in education are becoming conscious and articulate in the great people's colleges of the West. Free advertisement of the School of Ethics in its *Bulletin of the Summer Session*, the provision of suitable auditoriums for public lectures, and finally the taking over into the regular courses of the university of three of the faculty of the School of Ethics for credit courses toward degrees, showed that the university authorities recognized in this non-sectarian attempt to emphasize character as the supreme end in education, a proper and helpful ally to their own purpose, and work.

¹A study of the fraternal insurance now being conducted by the Russell Sage Foundation, will be ready for publication in the winter.

The three courses in the university included the following: Prof. Nathaniel Schmidt of Cornell University on Oriental History as related to ethical-religious development; Dr. Henry Neumann of the College of the City of New York, on the Psychology and Methods of Character-Development, a course which proved especially valuable to teachers; and Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer on Aims and Methods of Social Service with special reference to preserving just and constant balance between efforts for personal discipline and uplift of the less competent individuals and all movements for social reform and progress.

Of the lectures given solely under the auspices of the School of Ethics and open to the general public, Dr. Felix Adler's course on the Philosophy of Ethics applied to the chief ethical problems of our time, and that of Mr. William M. Salter, now associated with the department of philosophy of Chicago University, on Schopenhauer and Nietzsche were most noticeable, while the finely discriminating course by Professor Schmidt on Ethical Tendencies in the Hellenistic World added a distinctive note. A course on Moral and Social Education included five lectures by Earl Barnes on The Relation of Moral Education to Stages of Growth in Childhood which were welcomed by throngs of teachers as an illuminating exposition of his special studies of child life. Prof. Clyde Weber Votaw, president of the Council of the Religious Education Association represented fraternally the aims and efforts of a body working along a different road toward the same goal of more effective moral training of children, Dr. John Lovejoy Elliott of the Ethical Society and Hudson Guild of New York city met the needs of many teachers in his lectures on Material and Methods in Ethics Teaching and received a response which testified to the intense desire of all thoughtful leaders in the educational world to learn a better technique in aiding childhood and youth in vital choices of ideal and conduct.

The ten lectures on social education or the effect of environment upon personal character, included a memorable address on the Function of the Family as

the chief agency in the socializing of the individual, by Dr. Albion Small of Chicago University and a broad and stimulating address by President Van Hise of Wisconsin University on the Social Function of the School, which showed how the school must be thoroughly democratized in a democratic state and how the university itself must meet the people where they live not only in all localities of residence but in all vocational and social needs. Jane Addams and Percival Chubb both presented the gospel of a finer and more varied recreational opportunity as an aid to moral growth and social regeneration. Mrs. Celia Parker Woolley, founder and head-worker of the Frederick Douglass Center in Chicago, spoke of the social value of racial co-operation; and Rev. Jenkin Lloyd gave a ringing call to supplant modern militarism with better schools, better civic organization, and better politics, as means of national defence and uplift.

Dr. Paul Reinsch of the University of Wisconsin presented a keen, scholarly and idealistic appeal for ethical progress in legislation, the rescue of the legal profession from the thralldom of tradition and precedent and its entrance upon a needed constructive work of social advance in law and the administration of law. Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, who frankly proclaimed the gospel of personal health and valiant civic struggle against dirt, disease and all physical evils, attracted over two hundred club women of the state to her lecture. Mrs. Spencer spoke on the Social Function of the Church as a necessary and permanent element of social advance; its appeal to the individual to make the most and best of himself under all conditions however hard and whatever the social duty that the time-spirit might at any given moment urge upon the social conscience, constituting to-day a needed balance to the increasing demand for activity in environmental change.

Two closing sessions devoted to a specific exposition of the ethical movement in its larger aspects and to a presentation of the reasons for the establishment and maintenance of schools of ethics at seats of higher learning as an aid in attaching

the idealism of youth definitely to higher ends of personal and social well-being, ended the program of the school. That an average of 250 persons, most of them busy students, attended lectures of such serious import and responded warmly to such high appeals, goes to show that the spiritual life of our American people needs only a more adequate expression to attain a more conscious leadership.

THE "KNOW YOUR CITY" MOVEMENT

ANNA LOUISE STRONG

Seattle is a new city and many of its potentially most valuable citizens have only recently arrived and are unknown to their neighbors. This condition made it particularly desirable to have some kind of a general gathering which would bring to the citizens a knowledge of the social agencies already at work, and would bring together the unknown forces. A tentative program, designed to cover the chief social forces of the city, was drawn up by Dr. Sydney Strong and myself, and submitted for advice to Miss Virginia McMeichen of the Charity Organization Society, Miss Anna Murray of the Washington Children's Home and Aid Society, and William K. McKibben of the Anti-Tuberculosis League.

The original program was compiled after close study of the programs of summer work in the New York and Chicago Schools of Philanthropy, but it soon seemed to us wise, in view of our limited knowledge concerning men and affairs in the city, to have at least two persons on each day's program, one actively engaged in the work under discussion, and one competent to criticise. We chose the best authorities available in the city.

Our next step was to interest an audience to give us some basis for approaching the speakers. By consulting with presidents of women's clubs and similar organizations, by attending meetings devoted to civic interests, and by a large number of personal calls, I secured in about ten days a list of seventy-five people who declared that they "desired to

see a civic institute in Seattle, and would endeavor to attend at least five meetings." It was understood almost from the first that the sessions were to be free, the speakers giving their services, and the Y. M. C. A. furnishing a hall.

The popular character of the movement, which turned the "class of twenty-five" into an audience ranging from forty to four hundred and averaging about 125, may be explained by three chief causes. One was that sessions were free. Another was the catchy character of our motto "Know Your City." It has been amusing, both during the sessions and since, to notice the extent to which advertisers in our city have made use of that motto. That fact, more than any other, has assured us that in the motto lay a recognized element of popularity.

The third reason for the success of the meetings lay in the support furnished by our morning newspaper, the *Post-Intelligencer*, which has as its editor-in-chief, a member of the National Municipal League, Erastus Brainard. Space was freely given not only for reports of the sessions themselves, but for interviews and articles three weeks prior to the first meeting.

A large part of the program was occupied by city officials themselves, usually in conjunction with some other speakers who were in a position to give a fair criticism of conditions. The mayor, the city engineer, the health commissioner, the judge of the Juvenile Court, the truant officer, the county sheriff, the inspector in charge of the United States Immigration Service, an interne at the city hospital, a councilman, and representatives of the park and school boards were all on the program. In addition to these officials nineteen of the city's charitable, social, civic, educational and industrial organizations were represented. In almost no instance, however, was a subject confined to the description of one particular work. The speaker was asked rather to consider the problem with which he dealt, and the relation of his organization and other affiliated bodies to his particular problem.

Visits were made to municipal and private organizations, in the city and

neighborhood. At least one prominent educator, one of the best known and most representative in Washington University, who had never attended a meeting of the City Council (and how many are there of our representative citizens who haven't), turned from one evening visit with the declaration that "I feel like running for councilman myself." Knowing the spirit which prompted the utterance, we could not help wishing that he might.

Results in an educational conference of this kind must of necessity be indirect. Certain more vigilant inspections and enforcements of law which have taken place since May have been attributed by several people to the direct influence of the institute. I hardly agree with that view. But I cannot but feel that the meetings have proved a stimulus to officials, who are after all very human, and who are too often severely let alone by the really good citizens while constantly approached by men who have some private scheme to advance at public expense. In this way, the institute doubtless served as a backing to law-enforcement on the part of officials who were willing enough to do their duty if the people seemed to want it.

THE WRETCHES OF POVERTYVILLE¹

A certain fascination, morbid and subtle, surrounds the underworld of the great city. A modern Puritan, weaned though he may be from a desire for a Sabbath visitation to the hell of Jonathan Edwards, still enjoys with true Virgilian, Dantesque emotion a journey to the haunts of the damned. To him, Dr. Nascher's study of the Bowery or, as he calls it, *The Wretches of Povertyville*, will prove of intense interest and, providing he skips the concluding chapter—*The Problem*—he will find it highly satisfactory. The author is an excellent guide—he tells everything, all that he knows and anybody knows, and even more mayhap, both of the past and

¹ *The Wretches of Povertyville* by Dr. I. L. Nascher. Published by Joseph J. Lanzit, Chicago. 298 pp. Price \$1.25. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

present; and pleasantly, with a rhythm in his talk, does he tell his story.

But, be you no slummer,—as slummers go—you will find here meat for thought, deep and profound. In this book the profound reader will stumble through the muck and mire of the Bowery as the Drain Man in *The Servant in the House* follows up the drain—seeking through the debris the source of evil. This drain, he will find, lies deep down underneath the sanctuary where he has been wont to worship—the frail structure of human nature. The plea of the little volume is that vice and crime are relative, not absolute, changing with place and time and “the nature of the beast.” This plea may be at odds with the ethics taught by seers but still may have a pragmatic sanction. Man has been struggling through the ages with certain disharmonies in his make-up, and it is these disharmonies that are the problems of the Bowery in the congregate as they are the problem in the lives of each one of us.

With no uncertain nor apologetic manner, has the simple truth been handled regarding the conditions, and the relative values of the several panaceas by which reformers have hoped to dry up the evils in this crime-breeding Bowery. Whether right or wrong in these estimates, the champions of these several schemes must be ready to meet the criticisms with frankness, and any discussion which this book may arouse can only help clear the mist that has tended to obscure many of the problems of crime and vice in New York.

Fortunately, the book is more than a melodramatic, cinematographic production of the Bowery and a critical analysis of relief agents. The writer dares to point out a ray of salvation to the criminal—and who has not committed crime among the wretches of povertyville? “Work at living wages will save him,” Dr. Nascher tells us, “though such work be under government control. Let it be a state farm or workshop, or road-making, or any similar occupation, where he will receive pay for work done, and will pay out of his wages for his board. Forcible detention until he has saved a certain amount, the amount determined by the gravity of the crime, would be a fitting penalty for his offense, and would place him in such a position that he would not immediately be forced into crime upon his release.”

Hope surely need not be left behind by the plodder through these pages. Still it will be with relief that he reaches the words which close the study:

“With the regulation of those evils which are necessary to avoid worse ones, and the strict enforcement of such regulations, with the suppression of those evils which can be suppressed without endangering society or public policy; with the segregation of the virtuous and unfortunate from the vicious and lazy, aiding the former to be self-supporting, repressing the latter by force, if necessary, we may be able to reach a rational ideal in the sociological aspect of our city.”

CONGRESS AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

HENRY S. CURTIS

FORMERLY SUPERVISOR OF PLAYGROUNDS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

The District of Columbia is one of the most unique domains in the world. Set aside from the wilderness in 1790 for the residence and private door-yard of the national government, it has grown under these conditions into one of our great cities with a population of more than three hundred thousand. The seat of the greatest republic of all time, its government is such a combination of monarchy and oligarchy as has never existed elsewhere.

This peculiar condition arose out of the jealousies of the states and the unfortunate experiences of the Continental Congress in Philadelphia, which led our forefathers to put into the Constitution the clause that Congress should have "exclusive jurisdiction over the District of Columbia." It did not, however, exercise this privilege at first; and Washington, up to 1871, had been essentially a small southern town in full control of its own affairs. At this time, the sewage ran down the gutters, the streets were unpaved, and there were hog wallows on Pennsylvania avenue.

Congress, dissatisfied at this, established in 1871 a territorial form of government with a governor and judiciary appointed by the president, and a legislature and delegate to Congress elected by the people. In order to hasten public improvements, a Board of Public Works was provided. This board proved to be the government, and set itself with the utmost energy to build sewers, grade and pave the streets and remodel the city.

Its work was effective but costly, and at the end of three years it had run the district into debt more than twenty millions of dollars. Discontented citizens, who felt that things were being done with a high hand and that they were paying high taxes for improvements that did not always benefit them, issued a me-

morial to Congress, setting forth their grievances.

This resulted in a long investigation by a joint committee of the House and Senate and a report in 1874, which became the "organic act of 1878." This report abolished the territorial form of government and set up in its stead the present régime, in which the executive functions are exercised by three commissioners appointed by the president, the judicial functions by a judiciary appointed by the president, and the legislative functions by Congress itself. The legislature, the delegate, and the suffrage for the people were abolished. Congress assumed one-half of the bonded debt and agreed thereafter to pay one-half of all appropriations for district maintenance. The tax rate for the district was fixed at one and one-half per cent.

Since that time this system has had thirty-one years of trial, and conditions have greatly changed. The district has been satisfied on the whole with the appointing of the judges and commissioners, though there has been a feeling that one commissioner or governor would make a stronger executive than three. But there has been general dissatisfaction both in Congress and the district in regard to the making of the laws and appropriations.

The country at large has also good reason to be annoyed. If each of our fifty-four states, territories, and colonial possessions were to have separate days and to come up in succession for legislative consideration, each would have a day once in nine weeks; whereas to the district, a comparatively small area, a day once in two weeks has been assigned regularly, with an extra day or two on its appropriation bill. It has besides the same interest as the rest of the country in all general legislation.

The present condition is anomalous.

Our national lawmakers have sometimes spent an entire afternoon in the discussion of such questions as whether a certain class of school janitors should be paid thirty-five or forty dollars a month. There are scores of debates where the economy proposed would amount to far less than the salaries of the legislators for the time spent in discussing it.

Congress has always been annoyed at the amount of time demanded for these small, local affairs, and the amount of interviewing to which they have been subject in regard to them.

As those who are familiar with general legislation know, nearly all of the effective work is done in committee. The discussion on the floor raises a great deal of smoke, but it rarely modifies the bill. Two committees in the House, and two in the Senate, have the affairs of the district in charge. One of these, known as the District Committee, which consists of nineteen members in the House and seventeen members in the Senate, has charge of all general legislation; while the subcommittees on appropriations, which consist of five members in each house, have charge of all the appropriations for maintaining the district government. While of course, this is not the only service rendered, in all, one-sixteenth of the members of the House and one-fifth of the members of the Senate are assigned to district committees.

The men on these committees have still greater reasons to be dissatisfied. During the discussion of the present form of government, Mr. Eldridge of Wisconsin said: "I feel, I suppose, as every gentleman has felt who has ever served on the District of Columbia Committee, the thankless task imposed when called upon to defend or advocate anything pertaining to the interest of the people of the District of Columbia. Not by any procurement or desire of mine, I have been on the District of Columbia Committee for the last four years." I suppose every member of the district committees of the House at least could sign his name under this statement with a good conscience.

The members have not felt that any service, however painstaking or able, advanced them at all with their constitu-

ents, and there have been cases where their re-election has thereby been prevented. They have resented a district post as almost a degradation in office. They have sunk from congressmen to aldermen, and aldermen, too, of vastly less power than those of other cities, because the committees are themselves too large for efficiency and much time is consumed in talk. The legislative committee has no power to make appropriations, the other committee may not grant the money to carry out their acts, and every bill is still subject to the approval or disapproval of the entire House and Senate. Because no one wants a district post, the older and more influential congressmen usually manage to avoid these committees.

The district has had yet greater cause for complaint. Good legislation is almost impossible. Congressmen feel that, in justice to themselves and their constituents, they cannot afford to spend much time on district affairs. They are not much interested at first, and by the time they have become interested and informed, they usually fail of re-election or are transferred to other committees. The knowledge of the new men is gathered mostly from the section of the city in which they live; and, as they reason about the rest of the city on the basis of this better section, this knowledge is oftentimes more dangerous than complete ignorance. They reside in Washington during the winter and early spring only and have no experience of summer conditions or summer needs.

As birds of passage without permanent residences or taxable property in the district, congressmen have no personal motives for taking an interest in the district's welfare. They are quite irresponsible for their acts. Their constituents do not know, and for the most part do not care what they enact for the district; and they are entirely independent socially and politically of the Washington people.

But far more important than all of these reasons is the fact that Congress is not and never has been friendly to the district. The feeling is probably as good as it ever has been, but it is not such as one appreciates in one's rulers. It is seldom that a session of Congress passes

without the district being bitterly attacked on the floor, and one can scarcely speak with many members of the Lower House without hearing said of the people: "They are a pack of beggars," "They are swindling the government," "They have no civic pride," and other expressions of dispraise or ill-will.

The reasons for this attitude lie deep in human nature and the situation. Congressmen are not so scarce in Washington as they are elsewhere, and there are other fish even larger than they; they do not always receive the consideration at local gatherings which they deem necessary. The country member who is charged ten dollars a day at the New Willard sometimes feels that he has been robbed, and the house rents seem to him similarly high. Many think that the government is greatly overcharged when it has to acquire property in the district by condemnation proceedings. Out of these various experiences has grown an antagonism on the part of many members of the House which makes satisfactory legislation unlikely, even if Congress had the requisite time and knowledge to enact it.

The action of the Senate committees has always been salutary, but it is far from curing the situation. The district is mainly dependent for its revenues on the Sub-Committee on Appropriations of the House. On this most important committee for the conduct of the municipality there are four members from the country or small places and a fifth who says he is hostile to the district.

There have been several attempts to make the District Committee also the Appropriations Committee. This would certainly help. It would give the District Committee powers similar to those wielded by the common council of a city, and would offer some assurance that the money would be forthcoming to carry out its enactments. The purpose of an appropriations committee is supposed to be to hold down expenditures and keep appropriations for different purposes in proportion to each other, so that the revenues may not be exceeded. It cannot be said that this arrangement has been a great success in national affairs, and there is certainly far less reason for such

a committee in local affairs. The district budget is predetermined in the main by the fixed tax rate of one and one-half per cent, and being a purely local appropriation, it does not belong with the national budget.

It is obviously wasteful to require two sets of men to legislate upon a subject when one set of men could do the work better. It would be a great help if the two committees had two or three members in common, or even the same chairman, as has been the case in the Senate.

What has been the outcome? It has been very difficult to get advanced legislation along the line of reforms adopted by other cities. If it has been secured, it has been at far more effort than would have been necessary elsewhere, and Congress has usually resented the necessary propaganda. One hears a good deal of the model Washington idea, but it is not discussed on the floor at the same time as the appropriation bill.

If Congress cannot give the district more time and is still unwilling to grant the suffrage, it would be better to make it a government department in charge of a bureau chief or cabinet officer. The district would, in this way, have a purely monarchical form of government in place of the mongrel sway it now has, and there would be someone who could give to district legislation and appropriations the time they absolutely require. If the district were placed in charge of a high grade municipal expert, it might be made to serve some such function for the cities as the Department of Agriculture has served for the country, and so the problem of the model city might be worked out, efficient, honest, somewhat autonomous, and with an upward trend.

The Department of Agriculture has done good service to the farms of the country, but the great problems of the future are those of city life. Involving, as they do, the task of producing a superior type of citizen, which is fundamental to both the greatness and permanence of our country, they are more properly national than local evils. We all know that our cities have been misgoverned and corrupt almost beyond endurance. Is there not as much reason for a department of cities as there is for

a department of farms? Thus Washington might become a model school or experiment station in municipal government for the rest of the country?

But why, if it is a burden to both parties, should we maintain at the national capital this most undemocratic form of government, which constantly misrepresents the country to all who visit it?

The chief reasons for abolishing the territorial form of government were, first, that the people of the district were a floating population of office holders, changing with each administration. This time has passed away. Since 1871 under civil service rules temporary office holders have become permanent residents. Second, that more than a quarter of the population were "illiterate" Negroes—not a very dangerous proportion, especially with an educational or a property qualification or both. Third, that the territorial government had saddled the district with an immense debt in three years' time. True, but it was the appointed Board of Public Works, not the legislature, that did this. Fourth, that the United States was to pay half the taxes and therefore should govern. It might follow quite as logically that the district should govern, because it also pays half the taxes. As the property of the United States in the district is not, in the main, for local use, why should not the United States, owning half the property, also pay half the taxes? If we wish our capital to be not a local but a national city, why should not the country at large bear the extra expense incident thereto?

On the other hand, the people of the district, many of whom have lived here all their lives, are certainly better informed about it than most congressmen. They have associations of local pride and home interest which no congressman from a distant state can possibly have, and they would be directly responsible for their acts to public opinion at all times and to their constituents at the next election. The large corps of scientists and men of affairs in the various government departments should furnish to Washington a more able administration than any American city now enjoys.

The district loses a great deal in missing the civic education of the ballot.

Many intelligent men dislike to bring up their sons in Washington because of these conditions. It is not difficult to create and maintain civic pride in a city where the people feel that the city and government are theirs, but it is not so easy where they are made to feel that they live on sufferance.

It was said at the time of the change in the form of government, that Congress must control legislation to prevent hostile or hindering laws from being passed. If this were a real danger, it would still be sufficient protection if Congress had the veto power only.

The district should have the power to appropriate its own revenues absolutely. To deny this is to deny the fundamental principle of all democracy. The part of the district revenues paid by the United States might still be appropriated by Congress, but its amount being determined by the tax rate, and the appropriations of the district, this might well take place almost automatically. The district budget would then come before the appropriations committee in its present form, but with one-half of each item appropriated. Congress could modify the bill, if it wished, by redistributing its own share of the expenditure; but should have no power to change the appropriations already made by the district. If this bill were assigned to some committee, already overworked, it might be hoped that the congressional appropriation would be a mere approval of the estimates, or a duplication of the appropriations made by the district.

In conclusion, we have found that Congress has not the time, the special knowledge, the personal interest, the sense of responsibility, or the friendly spirit to fit it to be lawmaker for the district; and that the people of Washington have all these qualifications by virtue of residence. At the time the change in the form of government was made, the abolition of the suffrage was intended to be temporary. The conditions that led to it have disappeared with the coming of a large, permanent population. The restoration to the district of some measure of local autonomy in its municipal affairs, is an act of simple justice which would be greatly to the advantage of both parties.

THE TREND OF THINGS

In his Report on National Vitality, its Wastes and Conservation,¹ prepared for the National Conservation Commission, Prof. Irving Fisher has again expressed his view that this country is losing thousands of lives and over one and a half billions of dollars through preventable disease.

After showing that modern science and sanitation have tended to lengthen human life at the rate of about four years a century, Professor Fisher devotes most of the remainder of his report to demonstrating how we may still continue to lengthen the span of life. For instance, the death rates from such diseases as tuberculosis, typhoid fever, malaria, hook-worm disease and syphilis, may all be materially lowered by proper attention to certain simple rules of hygiene and sanitation. The nearly 12,000 deaths and 111,000 injuries from railway accidents may be greatly lessened by the employment of modern and up-to-date equipment. If the public were educated to the fact that such minor ailments as colds, stomach or other functional disorders, or fatigue often lead to the most serious illness, the saving of life affected in this way alone would be enormous.

In general, Professor Fisher speaks of four methods by which life may be conserved and lengthened. The first he calls "conservation through heredity", and under this head he includes what Garton and Pearson have called "eugenics." The training of parents in regard to the baneful or beneficial influence they may exert on their offspring would tend materially to lengthen life. A second method is called "conservation through public hygiene." Obviously under this section come all of the measures employed by municipal, state, and federal authorities in the interests of health improvement. That these efforts should be extended needs little argument. "Conservation through semi-public hygiene" deserves more decided emphasis than Professor Fisher has given. Not only the medical profession, the hospitals and other institutions, the schools and colleges, but all of the varied interests under which men and women have united should be allied for the conservation of life and health. The aim and end of each of the three methods just mentioned should be found in Professor Fisher's fourth method "conservation through personal hygiene." After all, the benefits of heredity and public or private efforts for the betterment of living conditions are neutralized by the indifference of the individual. The work

of conservation, therefore, may be summed up in the efforts to raise the varying standards of personal hygiene.

How many years may we reasonably expect to add to the normal life? Professor Fisher does not answer this question fully. But, if the various preventable diseases, which now prey upon man, were reduced to a minimum, life could easily be lengthened in one generation by eight or ten years; and it is not at all presumptuous to hope that centenarians would then be comparatively common.

* * *

Twenty-seven companies are engaged in liability insurance in the United States. Policies are issued covering almost every occupation wherein many persons are employed. These policies vary according to the different risks of business in which the insured are engaged and cover pretty much every risk where accidents to employees or others are likely to occur. The companies were formerly organized as a liability conference which adopted standard forms of policies, and promulgated rates of premiums to be charged for specified risks. Several years ago this was dissolved and converted into a statistical bureau. The standard policies, rates, etc., adopted on January 1, 1905, are still in general use by the companies and form the basis on which their business is conducted. The Spectator Company has issued its Manual for 1909 on Liability Insurance, containing not only this conference data but the later policy forms. It is a handbook of information of service to social workers who are interested in industrial accidents and the various insurance and legislative schemes which have been proposed. The manual, of course, covers all accidents.

* * *

In Atlanta, Ga., the police court convicts, according to the *Atlanta Journal*, keep all the streets in repair, do all of the grading, lay a large proportion of the pavement, build and instal all the catch basins and manholes, construct railroad crossings and underpasses, aside from other work. At a maintenance cost of about \$115,000 a year, the city reckons that it receives about \$300,000 worth of work. The average term of the 23,000 convicts during the last four years has ranged from eleven to thirteen days, and the average number of prisoners a day has ranged from 175 to 200. Whatever one may think about working prisoners in the public streets, the results show that short term prisoners are not so constitutionally incapacitated that they cannot pay for their fare by their own labor.

¹ Report on National Vitality by Prof. Irving Fisher. Published in paper by the Committee of One Hundred. Pp. 138. Price \$1. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

JOTTINGS

United Hebrew Charities and Immigrants.—In giving up the work at the immigrant station at Ellis Island, the United Hebrew Charities states as its very excellent reason, that the maintenance of an agent at that point, created a wrong impression both on the immigrant and on the public. The immigrant is not in need of charity but only of friendly advice and assistance, and the charities decided to leave this work to societies organized for general personal service rather than relief giving.

Scholarships of the Jewish Agricultural Aid Society.—Some interesting scholarships have been established by the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society for the sons and daughters of Jewish farmers. In the *Jewish Farmer*, the monthly magazine published by the society, twelve scholarships at agricultural colleges for a period of one year are offered during the winter months when work on the farm is not pressing. The value of the scholarships is from thirty-five to seventy-five dollars and covers board, books, tuition and incidental expenses. The variation is in accordance with the length of the course. The prizes will be awarded in competition, which will consist of a composition in English, on the subject: The Autobiography of a Farmer's Son (or Daughter).

Associated Charities of Peoria, Ill., Reports.—In the annual report of the Peoria, Ill., Associated Charities and Philanthropies for the year ending April 30, 1909, a statement is presented of the total amount of money saved to the county by reason of the investigations made by the society for the County Outdoor Poor Relief. The figures have been worked out in detail and show a saving of \$30,885.55 in four and a half years. The average annual saving, therefore, is \$6,863.58. Against this it is showed that including the fund for the visiting nurse, less than \$3,500 was used for all purposes by the society itself. Two things are self-evident from these comparative figures. One is the broad gauge attitude of the county authorities in making use of the services of the Associated Charities. The other is that the society should certainly receive greater financial support than it now does. The financial report also shows good and intensive work of a very thorough character.

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BY THE EDITOR

THE SOCIAL IDEAL

That the normal is the ideal is a very simple discovery, and, like many other simple and all but axiomatic propositions, it has far-reaching consequences. We are concerned only with its bearings in social work. Influencing our choice of ends for which to work, giving us a new and fine inspiration, and affording a test of the value of our results, the principle that our goal is a normal community has greater significance than has yet been appreciated.

The degenerate and the genius are, to be sure, interesting pathological objects of investigation for specialists. The one should be restrained and cared for, and the other should have reasonable scope for his extraordinary gifts, possibly needing also a modicum of care and restraint if the direction of his genius should chance to be anti-social. Social workers and philanthropists, however, who set out deliberately to benefit their fellows, to promote the common welfare, to prevent needless suffering and waste of human life, and who wish to accomplish as much as possible with the resources and energy at their disposal, may well find a more attractive and more useful field of endeavor in helping to secure the recognition of normal standards of comfort, normal standards of activity, normal standards of life, and to sweep away the obstacles which prevent the realization of these standards by ordinary human beings.

This is our social ideal. It may not be sufficiently lofty for those of our readers who think of themselves as idealists. We fear that it may be too radical for some others who think of themselves as unsentimental, practical persons. Yet it is offered in no compromising spirit. Radical or conservative as it may seem according to the point of view, we do not see that it need alarm any sensible and open-minded person who is willing to confess that it is his ambition to be a good citizen and a good neighbor, nor that it will fail to satisfy any of our more utopian co-workers for the time being, if they have any place in their philosophy for a practical working program of social betterment.

To secure the recognition of present standards, and to remove the obstacles which prevent whole groups in the community from realizing those standards in their lives, is, then, the twofold task in which practical citizens and philanthropists of inner vision may unite. In this task there is obviously a place for scientific research and educational propaganda on the one hand, and on the other for such environmental improvements, whether by the state or by private enterprise, as will make it possible for children to develop normally and for men and women of ordinary intelligence and efficiency to lead normal lives. Insurance, mutual aid schemes of various kinds, sanitation, and charitable relief are typical instances of methods by which such environmental changes are produced. We must know what is now possible and practicable; we must diffuse this knowledge to the utmost extent; and we must remove the barriers, whether deliberately

erected by greed and injustice or remaining because of indifference and neglect, which keep well intentioned and physically well endowed workingmen and their families from entering into the full enjoyment of these things which have been found to be reasonable and practicable.

What more clarion call to service can be imagined than this summons to co-operate in securing for all men the right to share in the normal standards of their time? What more inspiring opportunity for students than the investigation which will enable us to say confidently: Our standards of living do not any longer allow this and the other deprivation, will not tolerate this and that hardship, however unavoidable they may have been in the past? What more obvious educational undertaking than the extension of an acquaintance with the results of such investigations, thus laying the foundations for that self-protection and self-help which are the only safe reliance in a democracy? The materials for scientific investigations of the standard of living lie in the markets and in the homes of the people. They are not of the closet type of studies, though there is need enough for the aid of the brain that can discriminate and generalize.

Research and publicity, however effective and disinterested, do not complete the undertaking. Social work involves still another class of activities which are more apt to encounter opposition because they inevitably run athwart privilege and selfish business interests. The abolition of child labor, the restriction of the labor of women in certain industries, the regulation of dangerous trades, the maintenance of definite standards of habitation and of sanitation, the prohibition of poisonous foods and drugs, the taxation of franchise and monopoly privileges or their regulated sale in an open market so that socially created values may be shared equitably by the entire community, are illustrations of the methods by which in certain critical points normal standards must be enforced by legislation and the courts. The most convenient and telling opposition to all such righteous social endeavor is to hurl at its advocates the question-begging epithet of socialism. Whether it belongs in the socialist program is a question which so far as we can see is of interest only to socialists. Our advocacy of such laws as we have enumerated has no socialist origin. It follows irresistibly from the most elementary acquaintance with our present day resources and present day conditions. If families need no longer live in dark, damp, unsanitary and indecent dwellings, if children of tender years need no longer work for wages, if infection need no longer creep unchallenged from room to room, from child to child, if incomes need no longer be inadequate to provide for the recognized necessities of life, then it follows with a logic that brooks no denial that everyone must speedily do what he can to put an end to indecent dwellings, child-labor, infectious disease, and inadequate incomes. If our social work contributes to these ends and to such ends as these it will satisfy our loftiest ambitions and will meet every rational test imposed by the most hard-headed of practical men.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE ILLINOIS BOARD OF ADMINISTRATION

The appointments to the Board of Administration, which after January 1 is to control the seventeen state charitable institutions of Illinois, is to say the least a grievous disappointment to those whose sole interest is to secure the highest available intelligence and efficiency for such highly specialized duty.

In THE SURVEY for July 31 the acute legislative and administrative crisis in the situation of these second largest state institutions of the country was carefully stated and analyzed. It was shown clearly that every change made by the Legislature in the excellent bill framed by the present State Board of Charities, was an acknowledged concession to the political control of the state institutions and the partisan manipulation of the patronage involved. The only hope of averting their worst exploitation and of making the best of many very good features left in the state institutions act, lay in the governor's resolution to rise above all partisan consideration and dictation in appointing the most capable specialists available.

This he has not done. To be sure he was hampered by the requirements of the act, literally interpreted, that "no more than three members of the board shall belong to or be affiliated with the same political party." Liberally construed, it would have left an independent executive free to give the interests of the institutions the clear right of way over all political considerations that would have been at all likely to interfere with the most expert management of this great public trust. But more rather than less was made of this bi-partisan provision, evidently in order to give preference to political rather than professional qualifications in appointing at least a majority of the board. The nominations officially tendered by the minority party's state or-

ganization were not indeed approved. And it is but fair to admit that the governor might readily have selected for these \$6,000 jobs five men from the candidates urged upon him by both parties, who would have been so wholly unfit and positively objectionable that the present board would appear highly creditable by contrast. Nevertheless nothing is known or can be said of the qualifications of the three avowedly political appointees except that they are "reputable citizens," as the act naively requires them to be, and that they have by no means been disreputable in the politics of their parties.

Much more, however, can be said of the two members of the board whose appointment as prescribed in the act, was limited to those "qualified by experience." Dr. James L. Green's superintendency of the state's largest asylum for the insane at Kankakee fairly attests his qualification "to advise the board regarding the care and treatment of the insane." As auditor of state institutions, Frank D. Whipp amply demonstrated his ability as an accountant, but he has had no chance to prove his capacity for purchasing supplies and administering business affairs on the large scale involved in his new office of fiscal supervisor. It is most lamentable that both the act and the appointments to the Board of Administration ignored the provisions of the original bill requiring one member to be "qualified by education and experience to advise regarding the care, education and correction of delinquents," and another to be similarly qualified to "advise regarding charities and children." It is only just to add that persons pre-eminently qualified for all these specialized functions could have been found if sought, and would have been available if assured that the governor intended to use his unquestioned power to make the new board a non-political body of experts.

It is noteworthy that the one most influential newspaper in the state friendli-

est to the governor and to the reputable management of the state institutions, announced his appointments to the Board of Administration with the head-line: Politicians Well Pleased with Men Chosen to Manage State Institutions. Editorially it added, "There seems to have been a very happy solution of the problem that was presented by the factional struggle." The other leading republican paper heads its editorial on A Good Board, with the following illuminating paragraph: "Governor Deneen exercises his executive prerogative and performs his executive duty in making appointments with a canny deliberation and a wary circumspection calculated to produce the extreme miseries of suspense in the breasts of the watchers at the gate who gather for the tidings of good or ill which may come from the executive office."

Notwithstanding the disappointment in the hope of better things which the people who are disinterested and loyal to the best interests of state institutions had a right to entertain, the members of the new Board of Administration should be credited with good intentions to do their best in giving the most efficient management of which they are capable. And their best may quite possibly be very good. The first test of their actual attitude will appear in the way they construe their power of appointment under the civil service law. It is possible for them to claim the right to make appointments before the institutions pass under their control on January 1, so that their appointees could then be technically considered "hold-overs." Of course this could not be regarded otherwise than as disingenuous dealing with the merit law, under the provisions of which the act leaves all employees under the control of the Board of Administration, excepting only the superintendents of institutions. These were unfortunately exempted from the very legal protection which would have given permanency, independence, and therefore professional desirability to the positions which would have thereby become attractive to the specialists most qualified to meet their exactions.

It is sincerely to be hoped, however,

that from the start the Board of Administration may take such a high view of its exacting duties that not only its constituents in the great state of Illinois, but the larger public throughout the whole country to whose judgment it is amenable, will cheerfully accord it the high credit which awaits its faithful, intelligent and efficient fulfillment of the great responsibilities devolving upon it.

CLOSING THE RAINES LAW HOTELS

The excise year in New York state begins October 1 and the bonds necessary to obtain a license must be given each year. Hence, the surety companies have again the opportunity to refuse to bond objectionable places.

The Committee of Fourteen for the Suppression of Raines law hotels, is making a special effort to close up the places of bad repute. To revoke the license and close a Raines law hotel is a much more difficult process than is imagined by the outsider. In fact, the legal closing is possible only as a part of the penalty of conviction resulting in a strict court suit which gives the lawbreaker every advantage, as possession is still nine points of the law. How favorable to the violators is the excise law, is illustrated by the statement that only fifteen licenses will be refused in Manhattan on October 1 of this year, in spite of the fact that the police department has co-operated with the excise department in closing the worst dives of the Bowery and Chatham Square.

The Committee of Fourteen is endeavoring to obtain the same result that would follow from revoking licenses by establishing an unofficial discretion to be exercised by those who have power and influence in the liquor business. A list of certain places that have been marked to be refused financial assistance has been given to the brewers. Some places are indicated by a cautionary mark and others are blacklisted. The presidents of the surety companies have received letters asking for their co-operation. Without spirituous liquors there is no need for a license, and without a bond, a license

cannot be secured. The refusal of surety companies to write the resorts is vital to the success of the movement. This year it is hoped that, with the co-operation which has been established, the unfortunate lack of official discretion existing in the Raines law may be overcome and that places of bad character may be closed effectually.

THE VISION OF GREATER CHICAGO

It is with peculiar satisfaction that THE SURVEY presents even a partial idea of the pictures and description in the Plan for Chicago to a larger public than can see the fine volume in which they appear fully, or the architect's designs now on exhibit at the Chicago Art Institute. The whole country may well share the pride which Chicago justly has in the citizenship of its Commercial Club and in the capacity of its architectural resources that are capable of producing such a vision. It is, of course, a vision of the far future, involving incalculable changes and expense. And yet it has already so appealed to the loyalty and energy of Chicagoans as to be generally accepted as a goal, and even to be taken into account in planning for the location of new public buildings and improvements. The ideal and scale of the city-planning which so many other cities are proposing will surely be enlarged and raised to a higher artistic standard to meet the demands of a further future set in this plan for Chicago.

The critically appreciative review by George E. Hooker is worthy of the civic secretary of the City Club of Chicago. He has so long and minutely studied the pressing practical needs of his city for better living and working conditions that he, perhaps with better grace than any other, may intimate that the more detailed consideration of present conditions is prerequisite to the acceptance and realization of any plan for Chicago. A study, for instance, of the distribution of areas to be utilized for different purposes, and of the street-widths best adapted for business, residential or transportation uses, together with a thorough-going inquiry into the housing conditions

of the common people would be essential preliminary to entering upon the effective execution of any plan which could possibly comprehend even the present needs, much more the immediate future, of an entire city such as Chicago is and is sure to become. Indeed, nothing less thorough than the survey made of living and working conditions in Pittsburgh will suffice as the basis for a plan for Chicago.

It is a strategic time just now to strike for such a scientific investigation of Chicago's existing conditions. The Harbor Commission's report exhaustively surveys the waterways, thoroughfares, subways and other topographical features of the city. Great railway terminal stations are being erected. The freight subway is extending its operation. The subway for street cars is being planned. The outer belt park system and forest preserve are about to be added to the extensive interior parks and playgrounds. A revised building code is ready for adoption. The city health department has greatly increased the efficiency and extent of its service. There is even hope of better police administration. But these provisions to meet growing demands only emphasize the need of exact knowledge of the city's population, its constituency and distribution, of the housing and sanitary conditions of the people, of the conditions under which employment is secured and livelihood earned, of the extent of disability, death, and dependence due to accident and occupational disease, of the provision for receiving, protecting and distributing immigrants:—scientifically ascertained, analyzed, and summarized knowledge regarding these and many other facts is necessary that Chicago may know itself sufficiently to plan for its future wisely. And such knowledge is to be secured at no less expenditure of brains, time and money than a "Chicago Survey" will cost.

So our suggestion is that the Commercial Club's great design be entitled Volume II, pending the immediate preparation for the "Survey of Chicago" to constitute Volume I of the "plan for Chicago."



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CHARLES R. CRANE, MINISTER TO CHINA.

Closer coincidence of the man and the hour seldom transpires than in the appointment of Charles R. Crane as minister to China. By common consent the hour has struck for such reciprocity between the United States and the Chinese Empire as has never before been possible.

Meanwhile the man singularly fitted to meet the varied requirements of one of the most exacting and strategic positions in all our diplomatic service to-day, had just reached that point in his unconscious preparation for the post when he was ready for the unexpected summons to man it. Commercially he had risen from the overalls and jumpers which he donned upon graduating from the Chicago public schools and becoming an apprentice in his father's great shops to be the vice-president of the Crane Company and the promoter and supervisor of its vast foreign trade and manufacturing plants. Educationally he was so much of a scholar in talent, tastes and discipline that he made his international business relationships contribute to his culture and public service. Personally public-spirited, he has held his time, wealth and influence in trust for his citizenship. For years the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago had the right of way with him—even to command his service in the extremely arduous and hazardous position of its presidency. He was also one of the founders and the first president of the City Club of Chicago. By far the most of his public service has been done in the quietest and most unostentatious ways as a member of numerous boards of trustees and as a private citizen and a personal friend. In numberless interests, he has stood in the breach either to prevent public loss or promote public gain. With a genius for friendship and keen insight into critical situations, he has earned relations with all sorts and conditions of men that are as personal as they are international. He has thus become the best known citizen of Chicago abroad—its most cosmopolitan citizen. This world-wide acquaintance with men and affairs, linked with versatile linguistic, literary, commercial and political culture, all permeated with the highest sense of public duty, promise high human service from his ambassadorship to China.

A NIGHT COURSE IN PHILANTHROPY

On October 5 the New York School of Philanthropy will inaugurate an evening course in philanthropy, designed to offer to those engaged in social work, and employed during the daytime, an opportunity to extend their knowledge of the problems of charity, civic life and social conditions. The lecturers of the night course will be so far as possible the same experts in their respective lines as those that give instruction in the day courses. The night course is not in any sense a substitute for the full year course, but is designed as a supplementary training for those now engaged in social work and allied fields, who cannot use the daytime for school work. The requirements for admission provide that candidates must be engaged in social work in either a volunteer or professional capacity, must have been so engaged and must intend to re-enter such service. The bulletin of the school goes on to define social work as "the work of charitable visitors, teachers, parish and church workers, executive secretaries, officers and active managers of charitable, correctional, educational and civic societies, public officials having to do with educational enterprises, sanitary and public health officers."

Examinations will be held at the end of January and of May. Class discussions and informal quizzes will be frequent. The course is divided into four parts:—Child Helping Agencies, fifteen lectures; The Family, fifteen lectures; The Community, fifteen lectures; The State, fifteen lectures. O. F. Lewis, of the Charity Organization Society, has been appointed supervisor of evening courses. For details regarding tuition charges, lectures, etc., application may be made personally or in writing to S. M. Lindsay, or O. F. Lewis, 289 Fourth avenue.

CHICAGO'S MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES COMMISSION

The election of Prof. Charles E. Merriam of the University of Chicago as alderman, to represent the great constituency surrounding the university, has been

amply justified already not only by his general efficiency in the City Council, but especially by the appointment of the Commission on Municipal Expenditures and Accounting, created under an ordinance introduced by him. A widely constructive scope, and not merely a critical function was given the commission by the action of the City Council. Its inquiries, which include all municipal departments, may extend over the expenditures of the school and library boards, if the commissioners choose to cover the accounts of those more independently constituted bodies. Quite apart from the widespread suspicion and direct charges of wasteful methods and negligence at the City Hall, the ordinance contemplates not only the investigation of the expenditures in relation to the amount and quality of work in all departments, but also the unification of their system of accounting.

To head this work, Professor Merriam is pre-eminently fitted both by his study and teaching of municipal government and economics at the university and by his special investigation of the revenues of Chicago for the City Club, which published the results of his inquiry. Serving with him on the commission of eleven men appointed by the mayor are several of the ablest aldermen, the city controller, the special traction council of the city, who was formerly president of the Municipal Voters' League, and some of the best representatives of the commercial, banking, railway and engineering interests of Chicago. Time and funds are given the commission to prosecute the inquiry without any hindrance on account of expense or haste. Its results ought to be as suggestive to other cities as they are sure to be serviceable to Chicago.

CLEVELAND'S NEW DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC SAFETY

H. R. Cooley, a member of Cleveland's Board of Public Service and since 1901 director of the Department of Charities and Correction, has been appointed director of public service by Mayor Johnson. In his new office Dr. Cooley will have charge of the police and fire departments, formerly under the Board of

Public Safety, the Department of Charities and Correction and the building department. The Board of Control over which Dr. Cooley has been placed takes the place of the old Board of Public Safety which went out of existence on August 1. It will pass finally on all contracts approved by the Board of Public Service and have the last say on all matters pertaining to the management of the different departments. Until January 1, according to rulings made by attorneys, the board can appoint and discharge members of the fire and police departments at will, as the city will be without civil service until that date.

Dr. Cooley is perhaps best known for his work in establishing the Warrensville Farm for adult city prisoners, the Hudson Farm for delinquent boys and the Brotherhood Home for paroled prisoners on Summit avenue.

WAYMARKS OF LABOR DAY

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Our American Labor Day registers waymarks of the ebb and flow in the tendencies and destiny of laboring life, and also of employing capital. In the long run they go up or down together. Neither can exploit the other very long in modern industry without suffering from the loss it inflicts. The same economic necessities force upon both similar policies and tactics. If one more than the other is compelled to conform its organization and procedure to such necessity, the other is thereby obliged to organize in the same way. And yet it is not true, as is often too good-naturedly claimed, that the interests of capital and labor are identical. The differences between them are real, honest and inevitable. Conflict of their competing interests is unavoidable under the existing competitive order of industry. The years may vary the form of the conflict but they do not alter the fact of it.

One of the first evidences of progress or reaction which any year brings forth in the industrial movement of national life is to be seen in the forms which the

conflict takes on and the way in which it is settled. The progress of the past year registers itself in the transference of this class struggle in larger part from the field of the strike and the lock-out to the arena of the courts. The crucial cases pending in the District of Columbia which involve not only the liberty of the chief labor leader, but the limits of the writ of injunction in restricting the liberty of speech and the freedom of the press, will be epoch-making in the history of judicial decisions affecting organized labor.

The legislative forum has become the field for making peace more notably this year than in many another. The Illinois Industrial Commission scored a great advance in protecting the health, comfort and safety of employes by the enactment of its bill through the conciliatory co-operation of the State Manufacturers' Association and the State Federation of Labor. The joint session of the commissioners of three other states to secure just liability and compensation for injuries by accident promises a long-delayed advance in the equities of American life. The steady progress of the American section of the International Association for Labor Legislation is a harbinger of the new bond of national and international peace founded on industrial justice and co-operation. Its publications register the tendency of legislatures among all people, at last to give labor its day in court. The legal removal of irritating industrial conditions and the adjudication of industrial differences in court will gradually supplant violent tests of strength or endurance by rational methods of settling industrial strife. As surely as some form of arbitration will supplant strikes and lock-outs, so surely will conciliation between the parties at variance supersede arbitration by outsiders.

The more equal standing in court and the fairer share in the common heritage of the law which labor is surely winning, are due in part to the ever and everywhere increasing unification of the wage-workers of the world. They are making common cause more and more not only within the same craft, but also as members of the largest class in every commu-

nity. This class-consciousness has grown apace the past year both among wage earners and their employers. In the employing class, it has almost always been full-grown. As far as the history of industry reaches back and as long as the acts of legislation have been recorded, so long have those in the master class instinctively felt, thought and acted together. But year by year they have united more closely for joint action in organizations of their several trades, in unions of all manufacturers or commercial men and in all-inclusive employers' associations. These class-organizations of employers have grown stronger and more effective both in defense and attack, as they have conformed their type and tactics to those of labor organizations. Their employes have been amazingly slow to catch the class-conscious spirit of the master class. But now it is spreading rapidly and widely among all industrial peoples, and organizes them earlier, more solidly and effectively, than their employers have ever been able to organize themselves until very recently.

Labor still organizes itself more by instinct than by deliberate purpose or agreed method. Beneath all labor organizations is the instinctive feeling of working people that they belong together. It is this elemental instinct which constitutes the solidarity of labor, which makes labor unions possible and necessary, which accounts for the bitterness against "the scab" as treasonable to his class, and yet a beneficiary of its struggles, and which is far greater, more permanent, more indivisible and indestructible than any or all forms of "organized labor." The past year has given us three most impressively significant demonstrations of the reality and strength of the solidarity of labor. The most united and determined strike of the year is that of 3,000 unorganized men of many races and languages, against the unreasoning arbitrariness of the Pressed Steel Car Company at McKee's Rocks, Pa. The national strike in Sweden, to which so large a proportion of the entire working population of the country, whether organized or unorganized, were rallied by their common instinct of self-preservation; the spread of class-

consciousness from the industrial to the peasant classes of Russia, which makes possible the struggle for constitutional liberty,—these movements, in whatever part promoted by organized effort, are to be rated far more as the spontaneous movement of the common laboring life. They are the product of the spirit prevailing among the people, more than of any possible organization, whether of trade unionists or of socialists. They are signs of the coming democracy in industry. Happily for the peace of the world, the employing class is giving some encouraging evidence of sharing in this movement toward industrial democracy. The profit-sharing, labor-partnership schemes, with which they are seeking to supplement or supersede the more or less charitable benefit and pension features which have characterized their co-operation with their employes, are the signs of more democratic relations between capital and labor in coming days.

One other sign of the new times which are just appearing on the horizon of the working world is the entrance of the churches into the arena of industrial conflict. Standing aloof so long from the struggle, they have seemed to the contestants like mere spectators, either indifferent to the tremendous human interests at stake or helpless to influence even the ethical and religious issues involved. Not only individually, but collectively, the church membership is slowly but surely awakening to the fact that industrial relationships are not more truly economic problems, than they are ethical and religious both in their essence and issues. Religion practically applied to industry cannot fail to hasten the realization of industrial democracy, and it will be the salt to preserve it without the loss of its savor.

Such are some of the waymarks registered by Labor Day, 1909.

WASHINGTON'S NEW ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER OF LABOR

FLORENCE KELLEY

The state of Washington appears to be the first to appoint a woman to the highly important position of assistant

commissioner of labor. The office was created by the Legislature of 1909 and Mrs. Blanche H. Mason entered upon her duties in June. She has unusual qualifications for the position, having served for several years in Michigan as a factory inspector. Her present duties, set forth minutely in the statute, embrace the work of mercantile and factory inspector, together with that of statistical enquirer as to wages and health. It is startling to read the record of one month's inspection in Seattle alone, showing twenty-five children below a legal working age, which varies from fourteen years down to twelve, in a city free alike from pauper immigrants, cotton mills, glass works, and tenement industries.

The ugly fact is explained in part by the vacation of the public schools and in part by the cryptic wording of the law.

Under the Washington statute children must attend school to the fifteenth birthday. But a superintendent of schools may issue exemption certificates at discretion.

Boys cannot legally be employed in the telegraph and messenger service before the nineteenth birthday. But any judge of a superior court may issue permits for boys who have reached the fourteenth birthday. Lavish use of this discretionary power must have been made by judges, if indeed all the lads whom I saw at work both day and night in Seattle streets are really fourteen years old and working according to law.

For all other employments, children may get from the same judges, for vacation, exemption permits to work at the age of twelve years. This appears to mean that, from the twelfth birthday, children may work in vacation with the approval of the judges, and at all seasons if they get the approval of a judge and a superintendent of schools.

Fortunately, the superintendent of schools in Seattle, Frank Cooper, seems disposed to make no use of his discretionary power of exemption.

The urgent need for making effective the nineteen years age limit in the Washington law for telegraph and messenger boys is shown by the recent conviction, fining and sending for thirty days to the chain gang of one F. D. Gownyou, night manager of the Northwestern Messenger Company, by Judge John B. Gordon of Seattle. The charge was the sale of cocaine. The fine was \$100. Three other employes of messenger companies similarly accused failed to appear and Judge Gordon issued bench warrants for them. He announced that all future cases of cocaine selling will be tried under the state law which provides a fine of \$1,000, or a year in the county jail, or both. The employment of young boys by these companies for the illegal delivery of this drug is notoriously common.

The equipment of authorities for enforcing child protecting measures in Seattle is interesting. Beside the new assistant commissioner of labor, there are two truant officers (one of whom is appropriately named Trueman Ketchem), four probation officers attached to the juvenile court, two school nurses who incidentally return many children to school, and three officers of the Humane Society. All are paid from the city treasury.

Yet the newsboys escape them all and some newsboys are only five or six years old. It is several years since I have seen, in the streets of New York city, newsboys so pathetically small and neglected as several who were conspicuously in evidence in the leading thoroughfares of Seattle quite regularly in the afternoon and evening. For these there seems to be neither law, ordinance nor supervision.

WIDOWED MOTHERS

BELLE LINDNER ISRAELS

You live in three rooms in Essex street. It being summer, you spent the night on the fire escape, but not to avoid the heat. There is a boarder who helps out with the rent. You only have one bed. The boarder must have it. The three older children slept on a mattress on the floor after you brought them in from the street at eleven o'clock. The baby who is only eight months old, slept with you on the fire escape, and you stayed half awake all night for fear you might lose your hold on him and he might fall. Widowhood is a matter of some months with you and you lie awake early in the mornings endeavoring to solve the problems of shelter, food and clothing on uncertain earnings of four dollars a week. It is no great task to arise from such rest and take up the day's work. During your scant and hasty toilet, all of the children, including Freddie, the baby, clamor for their morning meal—if such it can be called. You must be at your work at half past seven and three of the children must be washed and dressed and at the day nursery two blocks away. There isn't anybody to help you with the work except Nellie, when she can be persuaded to do so without continuous quarreling with the others. Nellie is not as tractable as she used to be when you were working at home and knew just where she was and with whom she played. She runs about the streets all day now and it worries you to think of what may become of her, not only because of accidents, but because, too, of the stories one reads of the things that happen to some little girls. But you must work.

Rent must be paid and the Charities has no money to help you; there are so many other poor people. Willie has a running nose and they tell you at the day nursery that if it is not better to-day you will have to keep him home until he is well. That means that Nellie will have to stay away from school and take care of him. You are only thirty-six years old, but you look forty-nine, and you feel so tired and your arm hurts so where the dispensary doctor said it was

rheumatism and you are never without that dull ache in your head. Working all day at the hardest kind of a job—taking your place in the machinery of your employer's economy, has its compensations when the home-coming means the greeting of a sympathetic husband. But you come home only to the emptiness of missing him—he is dead. Perhaps it is worse yet and he has simply left you to do for yourself and the children because he has found someone younger and less worn in the struggle with life and the little ones. Your prospect is a restless night on the floor or the fire escape, with the children tumbling about and a boarder to make life more miserable, more crowded, more unhappy. What is the end? What sort of children will the little ones be without their mother's care, however unwise or untaught?

This is a real story of a widowed mother. She has thousands of companions in similar plights. The stories are different only in detail. The principle is always the same; the terrible struggle to maintain a home for the little ones and to keep them near their natural protector. Rousseau in his *Emile* values the zeal of a parent above the talent of a paid instructor. These mothers are as a rule of the unskilled type. They are just mothers and their children are as a rule typical of the faults and virtues of normal children enjoying home privileges whatever they be.

These mothers are no more desirous of sending their children among strangers to be counted as units among hundreds of other children in the asylums, than are mothers of the better class. They are just as sure that they alone understand the individualities of their children as are other mothers; and in the long run they would make as great a success in training the children. In certain cases of full orphanage, the principle has been recognized that the home gives something that the institution lacks, and placing-out has been resorted to and is vigorously carried on with most gratifying results. The theory under which a widowed mother is obliged to leave her home daily or to take such an amount

of work into it as will use ninety per cent of her time, does not allow for the normal development of the child. It is forcing the children who are necessarily without the proper amount of parental supervision, into correctional institutions and orphanages, where the public expense is far greater than private support at home. In the month of July in the Juvenile Court, there were twenty-two Jewish boys whose mothers were widows. Many of these were arrested at the subway station between the hours of one and three in the morning waiting for daylight to start paper-selling. All were the children of working mothers. Four girls who came to the attention of the court in the same month were committed because the mothers, widows, were working and could not look after the girls. One of them was complained of for staying away from home at night and another had become ill from lack of care and food while the mother worked late at night in a factory to keep the roof over their heads.

Finding a large percentage of mothers undergoing such struggles and this new field of work lying neglected, or nearly so, the Widowed Mothers' Fund has been organized to study and develop a new method of dealing with such cases. Careful survey of the field before them shows many complications. The families where illness has seized several members of the household, others where there is a grandmother to support too, or a sick son in a sanatorium, or even an insane husband who thus is out of the breadwinning class, all offer peculiar problems. The Widowed Mothers' Fund proposes to establish a standard of living in accordance with which per capita provision can be made until the children are of such ages as to be contributors. At present the fund is attempting to work with the United Hebrew Charities of New York in much the same manner as the committee on tuberculosis works with the Charity Organization Society.

A joint committee of both societies reviews all cases of widowed or deserted mothers coming to the attention of either society. In June and July of this year, there have been three hundred and fifty applicants, whose families average four

children apiece. The Widowed Mothers' Fund contributes regular sums to the charities for use in this work but, finding the greatest number of those needing its ministrations were residents of the East Side, the fund has established its office at 155 Clinton street.

The movement is organized along popular lines as membership in the Widowed Mothers' Fund costs only one dollar a year. This in itself has an appeal. Women and men of every social class find that the "mite" is easy to give. The president of the new organization, Mrs. William Einstein, in her many years of experience as director and vice-president of the United Hebrew Charities and president of the Emanu El Sisterhood, has been specially interested in the care of self-supporting widows who wished to maintain the integrity of their homes, and is eager that justice be done this very obvious cause.

When people reach the state of success in life that enables them to think of giving to others, the first contributions usually go to the hospital and the orphan asylum as representing the most helpless classes of society. With the new view of child life, the widowed mother should come in for her share of the first impulses to give, since it is easy to prove that the child will be far less apt to become a public charge in any form if assisted to remain in a respectable home until the age for breadwinning has come. It is really a contribution to the care of the orphan, and in a measure should give just that hold on a restraining home influence that so many of the younger boys and girls seem to lack. It is a fact that most of the girls who have had to be classed as wayward have had no hold on a home. Treating the orphan from a purely institutional point of view, and separating the child from its natural guardian to place it in the care of an organization, however good, does not supply what the mother widowed five years can give, who writes: "Dear madam, I can't part myself with my two poor little children. I will find myself lost in this big wide world. You know how hard it is to bring up children in a day nursery and work hard a whole day."

THE PROPOSED CO-OPERATIVE COMPANY OF AMERICA

WILLIAM J. HOGGSON

Dr. Frederick Van Eeden the most prominent scientific and literary man in Holland, whose experiments in social problems have been much discussed in papers and magazines during the last few years, has launched another venture in co-operation. In two recent visits to this country Dr. Van Eeden lectured and wrote about co-operation, and he now proposes a co-operative agricultural colony in North Carolina, the first department of an organization to be known as the Co-operative Company of America.

And an interesting project it is; doubly so, owing to the wide experience that the founder has had in his own country in co-operative work. The outline of the proposed Dutch colony in North Carolina will appear more vital after a brief rehearsal of the founder's work in Holland.

Frederick Van Eeden was born at Haarlem, Holland, in 1860, the son of a bulb grower and botanist of considerable reputation.

He was graduated from the University of Amsterdam in 1883, studied medicine and became a practising physician in Amsterdam. Later in the same city he established with Dr. Van Renterghem, a regular clinic, where for thirteen years, hypnotic suggestion was successfully applied, not as a cure-all but as a powerful aid in the treatment of disease.

Van Eeden's literary activities have been remarkable. As a poet, dramatist,



DR. FREDERICK VAN EEDEN.

novelist and essayist, he has been a leader in Dutch literature. His dramas have been produced in Berlin as well as his own country, and two of his books *The Deeps of Deliverance* and *The Guest*, have been published in English. Other works are now being translated.

It is, however, in the line of social experiment that Dr. Van Eeden has become most famous. In 1889 he bought land near Amsterdam and founded a colony which he called Wal-

den. Here he offered equality of opportunity and individual freedom, but freedom limited by common interest.

The divergent views of the various elements gathered together and their unwillingness to submit to sane management and competent leadership, proved to be the rock on which the wreck of the enterprise was accomplished. The bitter lesson learned, the community reorganized and began again and a dozen other co-operative centers were established on its model, all bound together in a "union for the common ownership of the soil."

In 1903 several thousand families were made destitute in Amsterdam by the failure of a railroad strike and Dr. Van Eeden was appointed the head of a committee of relief for the unemployed. Believing that co-operation instead of charity should be the medium, he established co-operative stores and factories, and gave employment instead of distributing alms. The plan was successful. It aimed at purity of goods, standard prices,

The photographs of farms accompanying this article are from the Italian colony of St. Helena, only a few miles from the proposed colony.



NEW ARRIVALS AT ST. HELENA.

gave liberal salaries to employes and rebates to purchasers, retaining a certain percentage of the net profits to be used in the extension of the business.

The growth of the scheme was so rapid that the difficulty in finding managers, the inexperience of the employes and their unfamiliarity with the duties assigned them, was opposed to all business rules for safe development and growth. There were over 40,000 members connected with the enterprise within a year and it was proved conclusively that while philanthropy might be run on business lines, a business such as Dr. Van Eeden started could not be safely managed and run purely as a philanthropy.

The result might have been foreseen by anyone with a business training, and when the crash came after public confidence had been lost, Dr. Van Eeden shouldered the responsibility, paid the debts which amounted to over \$100,000, and impoverished himself. This enterprise which was called The Union, is now on its feet again and has branches in several cities. The founder was and has remained primarily the artist. He is still in the prime of life, and eager to work out on business lines with business

men the new co-operative plan in this country.

Dr. Van Eeden has interested an advisory board of New York business and literary men in the new North Carolina project. The active management will be in the hands of a competent managing director. Numbers of plans have been proposed heretofore, some offering land, some offering land and advice, but Dr. Van Eeden's is the first effort in co-operation that strives to make a combination of capital and labor, the ultimate benefits of which shall revert to the workers on the land. It is an effort to make the farmer his own landlord, and give him so satisfactory a return for his labor through co-operation that the temptation to migrate to the city will be removed. It will tend to relieve the congestion of the cities, although at first only settlers of known ability and those who prove after investigation to be fitted to make a success of truck-farming will be admitted.

It is proposed to raise the necessary money (\$100,000) by offering first mortgage bonds at five per cent, and the land and the improvements on the land as security. The development of the land



WINTER LETTUCE UNDER CLOTH.



AN ALFALFA FIELD.



ITALIANS IN THE BERRY FIELDS.



TYPICAL FARM AT ST. HELENA.

would greatly increase its value and the security would constantly become better. The stock of the company will be divided into common and preferred. The former for tenants and the latter for prospective customers. Tenants may be eligible as stockholders only on recommendation of the general manager and acceptance by the board of trustees. They may then acquire stock representing ownership in the company, by purchase, or have stock set aside for them, to be paid for out of the earnings.

The entire details are not yet decided on, but the idea is that if the company furnishes land, houses, seed and implements, the settler shall put up a certain amount of money toward his maintenance, farm supplies and as an evidence of good faith. He will cultivate his land, his crops will be marketed, and the proceeds, less a certain percentage, will be placed to his credit. This percentage will be held by the company for a sinking fund for future extensions, or for carrying along the colonists over a possible crop failure.

The financial plan on which it is expected to base the new corporation is as follows: There will be two kinds of stock, preferred seven per cent (not cumulative) for consumers and trustees, and for tenants and employees, common stock will be issued, receiving the entire benefits beyond interest on bonds and dividends on preferred stock. First mort-

gage bonds five per cent, secured by land, improvements and all the assets of the company, will be offered to investors. The capital of the company will be \$500,000, divided equally between common and preferred stock, but it is expected to make a start on 1,000 acres of land and test the idea before going further. This will require \$100,000.

The cost of the 1,100 acre tract, of getting the organization in smooth running order, of preparing the land, building the cottages and buildings, together with the seeds, implements, supplies and mules, and of advancing supplies to colonists for a part of two years has all been carefully computed. The office expenses, and the cost of the incidentals such as taxes, etc., have been anticipated, and it is estimated that the amount mentioned (\$100,000) will safely take care of everything until the returns from the crops begin to come in.

The income to be derived will be from the rent of the farms, the commissions on supplies furnished, and the handling and marketing of the products of the farms. Estimated on a basis of fifty families there should be, at least, a gross income of \$12,250. The running expenses, consisting of the managers' salaries, both local and at the selling end, and incidental costs should not be over \$6,750, which would leave a net return of \$5,500 with which to pay interest on the bonds.

These figures are based on fifty fam-

ilies, occupying only about half the land. With the addition of forty or fifty families, which the land will support, without materially increasing the expenses, the net income by the time the entire tract is settled should be between \$15,000 and \$20,000.

By vote of the common stockholders (*i. e.*, the tenants and employes) a certain percentage of the amounts passing through the books as receipts for produce could be diverted into an account for dividends, which would even up the chance for entire loss on a crop to any single tenant.

Dr. Van Eeden has already investigated a large number of applicants, and out of one hundred and fifty families applying, it is believed that more than fifty will be found up to the standard. These families are all Dutch, who are known as among the best intensive farmers in the world, the thought being to inaugurate a standard of efficiency that shall be high, and maintain it. The accompanying chart indicates the produce department as one only of many activities which it is proposed to engage in, provided, of course, the initial enterprise proves the success anticipated. Each department will be distinct, controlled by the advisory board, but having its own local management.

The land it is proposed to settle first is in Pender county, North Carolina, on the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad, about thirty miles north of Wilmington. An option has been obtained on 10,000 acres, though one tract of about 1,000 acres will be utilized for the proposed colony. The government and other reports on the soil of this section show it to be of the finest character to grow peas, beans, cabbage, lettuce, cauliflower, egg plant, corn, beets, celery, radishes, potatoes, strawberries, figs, grapes, asparagus, tomatoes, carrots, peppers, turnips, squash, onions, kale, alfalfa, vetch, clover, etc. The climate is healthful and admits of farming operations the year around, thereby adding greatly to the possibilities of the crop returns. The rainfall is plentiful and evenly distributed through the year.

Transportation facilities are excellent, and the farmers being able to market produce from this section much earlier than northern growers, the prices obtained are among the highest. The feature that the company will emphasize will be the co-operative marketing and distribution of the products. Combining these ideas with the savings effected in the purchase of supplies, great saving is expected. That such a colony should succeed is to a large extent guaranteed by what already has been done by indi-



BEFORE COLONIZATION.

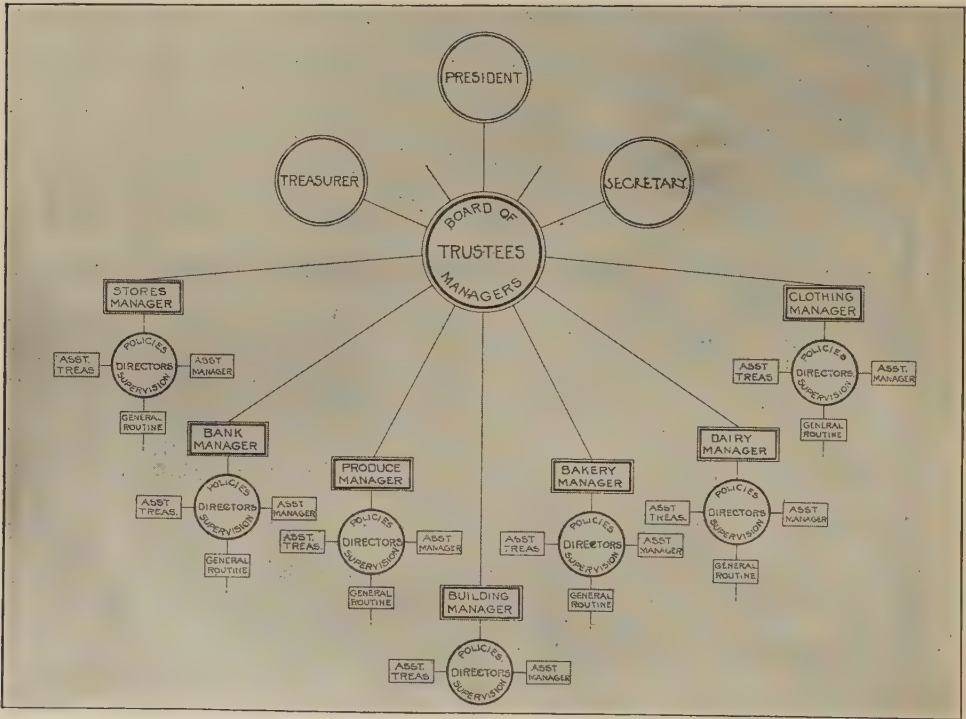
viduals in this same section and on the same types of soil. Within a few miles of the proposed Dutch colony of Lioba is the thriving Italian colony of St. Helena. The capabilities of the land have not yet been fully developed, but the results so far have been most satisfactory. There are other colonies of Poles, Dutch, and mixed races, but in none of them has been tried the co-operative principle, and it is believed that this is what is needed to bring about the best results.

The success of the new company depends on competent farmers, good land and climate, market facilities, able and honest management, and the necessary capital to purchase the land and build houses, a store, an assembly hall, and to carry the enterprise until after the first crop has been marketed. The architec-

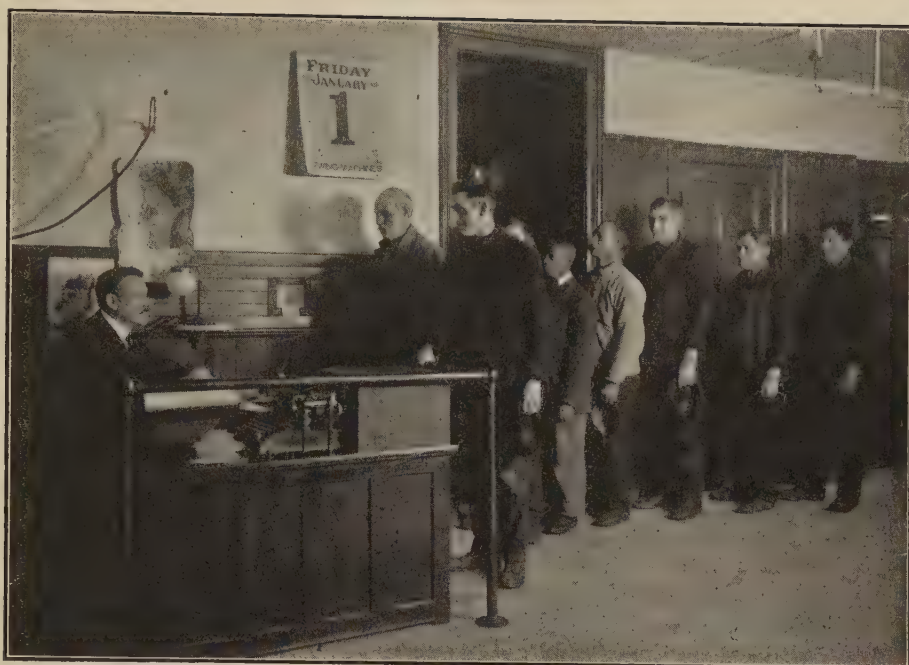
tural features of the houses and the attractiveness of the surroundings will receive careful attention. The settlers are ready, the land is under option, a local manager is available, and a general manager can be secured. Only the capital is needed to start work this fall ready for next spring's planting.

That the plan of operation is feasible has already been proved, for a corporation on exactly the same lines is already in existence in New York city and has been running successfully for some years.

Dr. Van Eeden expects to live in the colony and to utilize the great amount of experience he has had in co-operative work by instructing the colonists in co-operative methods and aiding the management in every way possible to make a success of the movement.



A CHART OF THE CO-OPERATIVE COMPANY OF AMERICA.



REGISTERING.
Erie County (N. Y.) Lodging House.

CONCERNING VAGRANCY

III—MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSES¹

O. F. LEWIS

NEW YORK

Every city must deal in some manner with vagrants and beggars. The treatment may be charitable, correctional, or both. Charitable treatment is given through breadlines, missions, wood-yards, municipal lodging houses, industrial homes, charitable and similar organizations and institutions. Correctional treatment is administered by means of courts, jails, workhouses and penitentiaries. A treatment partly correctional (and supposed to be partly charitable) is afforded the homeless wanderer when he is lodged over night in police station or jail, unarrested, with the intention of letting him go in the morning.

¹This is the third article by Mr. Lewis on aspects of vagrancy. The article has been prepared with special regard to the many inquiries from cities throughout the United States as to the desirability of establishing municipal lodging houses.

In American cities it is quite generally felt that to the vagrant who proclaims himself shelterless and penniless there should be given temporary shelter and food. In the past the apparently logical place for sheltering vagrants was the police station or the jail. Often there was no other available free place. "Vagrants are suspicious characters. Let the police keep an eye on them. Lock them up over-night for the protection of the community. Run them out of town in the morning, and good riddance to bad rubbish." Such has been the acute reasoning on the tramp question.

Jail or station house lodgings are generally inhospitable, insanitary and inadequate. But "beggars should not be choosers," and the proffered or con-

ceded accommodations have become traditional. Such lodgings are futile as cures, palliative as far as protection goes, and an injustice upon the lodger, for these reasons:

First, police station lodgings only postpone over-night the problem of dealing with the vagrant. The next morning the relations between him and the community are just what they were the night before—only worse. No man can lodge in miserable quarters, often not fit for live stock, without growing hostile toward the city or town that maintains the "shelter."

Second, the city thus gives indiscriminate charity. Few police stations or jails require work from their vagrant lodgers in payment of their lodgings. In many cases the vagrant and the keeper will both agree that the lodging itself was punishment enough. The city, however, that gives free shelter to able-bodied vagrants without compensatory work "and no questions asked" is an indiscriminate almsgiver, as much as the citizen on the street who gives a nickel to the tramp for a bed.

Third, cities lodging vagrants thus invite more tramps. Any community can have as many tramps as it is willing to take care of in a manner acceptable to

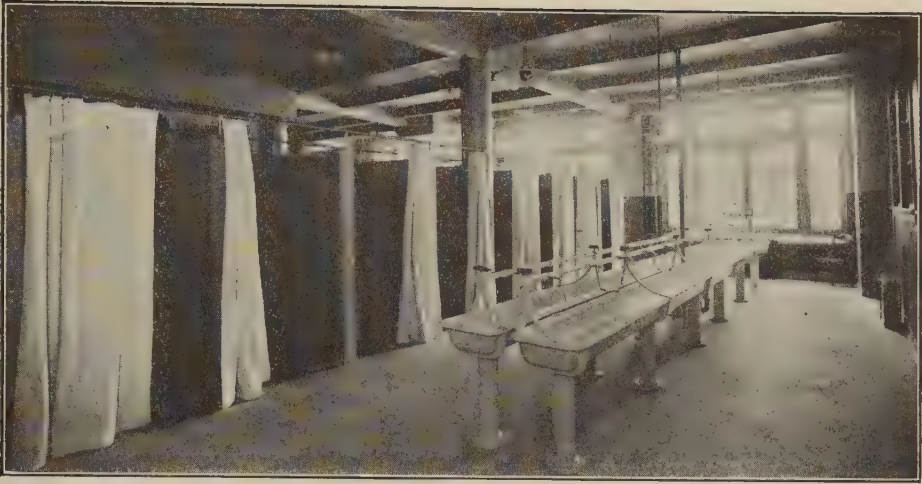
the tramps. "Getting something free" becomes a passion to the vagrant, largely irrespective of the intrinsic value of the article or commodity obtained. If the city of Smithville lodges tramps free and without work, while the neighboring city of Brownville has a decent lodging house, connected with a wood-yard or a stonepile, Smithville will be favored over Brownville.

Fourth, to lodge tramps free, without compensatory work and sanitary accommodations, is expensive to the community. Vagrants come to town to procure what they can from the town. Where tramps are housed free, there is much begging and many petty thefts. No further proof is needed than the frank statements of the hoboes themselves. Furthermore, the community that herds a group of unbathed, uninspected wayfarers in insanitary quarters is making a strong effort to maintain a center for the distribution of disease. How often does the community's board of health worry about the community's lodgings for tramps?

Fifth, the tramp lockup, with its discharge the next morning, is aiding the vicious passing-on system, by which the community suffers. The city may be rounding up tramps now and then, and



THE DINING ROOM AT THE MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSE, PHILADELPHIA.



WOMEN'S BATH AND WASH ROOM IN THE NEW YORK MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSE.

running them out of town, but neighboring communities are also rounding up tramps and running them into town. "When all its neighbors are doing the same thing, the community receives exactly as much refuse as it gets rid of," writes James J. Hill, president of the Great Northern Railroad.

Sixth, we have cited certain reasons wholly utilitarian. But ethically, it is a fact that to handle the vagrant by the over-night lockup system is to treat him like a dog. So long as tramps are herded like half-human outcasts in a tramp house or in police station cells, where often unspeakable things occur, the offending community is at least as bad a sinner as the vagrant whom it locks up for its protection.

The community thus gives the vagrant more cause to become anti-social, when it pens him up with a group of unknown, depraved men over-night. Were all tramps depraved, unhelpable, old, the group would be at least homogeneous. But there are all sorts and conditions of tramps. The wandering tramp army to-day is largely recruited from boys and young men. And in these wretched quarters in jails and lockups, we are, throughout this country, penning up boys and young men in the early stages of vagrancy.

There is a tragically dark side to the life of the young tramp on the road that

is not printable. Sex perversion is frequent among the older men, and the services of boys who may be lured to the road are valuable, indeed, to those who wish to beg and steal vicariously through the "kid that has been snared." Obviously, if vagrants are treated but as semi-human, with no thought of their reformation, the vagrancy problem of cities thus acting will not grow less acute.

Not all vagrancy by any means has reached the correctional stage. Vagrancy is the state of being out of work, penniless, generally friendless and having no place to stay. Frequently our laws on the subject practically make vagrancy the state of being nothing else. The four conditions mentioned above constitute no crime, yet the only shelter or help offered municipally in many communities for those suffering under them is in jails or lock-ups.

A vagrant becomes in reality a subject for penal discipline when he is persistently and intentionally idle, refusing or shunning work. "Man shall earn his bread by the sweat of his brow," to be sure, but how many cities say to the vagrant, "We have a chance for you to earn your bread temporarily by the sweat of your brow"?

The municipal lodging house is designed to meet the proper needs of the homeless man and of the community

which is asked to shelter him or help him otherwise. It should test the vagrant's willingness to work, and should furnish him temporary shelter and food to allay his hunger. Secondly, the municipal lodging house should be, so far as possible, a place where the man "down-and-out" may be encouraged to start on the upward road, and it should also be a means of guiding the vagrant or homeless man toward permanent, profitable work.

should be provided. Blankets and sheets should be kept clean, and the sheets and pillow cases should be changed daily. Blankets should be frequently fumigated. At least 400 cubic feet of air space should be allowed for each lodger. The sides of the neighboring beds should not be nearer than twenty-four inches.

Ventilation should be adequate, and beyond the power of the lodger to control. Windows can be easily blocked at the top so that they cannot be closed.



A MALE DORMITORY, NEW YORK MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSE.

SHELTER

It should provide a temporary shelter, sanitary and reasonably comfortable. Dirty quarters are costly quarters. Cheap insanitary lodgings disseminate disease. In every city, cheap private lodging houses are a menace to health. The city's own lodging house should be a model in cleanliness and operation. Fittings should not be elaborate, but adequate. Beds in the dormitories should be single, not "double deckers." An iron bed, with a good spring,

Part of the compulsory work of the lodgers may be utilized in keeping the house neat and clean. Shower baths, in the basement only, should be ample and their nightly use should be compulsory for all lodgers; otherwise vermin will surely get into the dormitories.

No clothes worn during the day should be carried into the dormitories at night. Lodgers' clothing should be fumigated during the night, but should not be hung up in ropes or bags, but on hangers. Sulphur is a simple fumigant.



DORMITORY AT THE BOSTON LODGING HOUSE.

An air-tight fumigation room can be constructed inexpensively. More expensive plants can be obtained, using formaldehyde gas.

Lodgers should receive clean night-shirts. They should not be required to sleep without body covering. Laundry work (sheets, pillow cases, towels, night-shirts, etc.) may be done on the premises daily, in part at least as compulsory work by the lodgers, or by men who will work for a few days for their keep.

Municipal lodging houses should keep on duty, for at least a portion of the evening, a medical officer to discover cases of disease sufficiently serious to be sent to the hospital, to give treatment and advice to those lodgers who are suffering from minor ailments, to vaccinate all who do not show fairly recent scars of vaccination, and to determine what men are not capable physically of doing the wood yard work or other labor compulsory at the house. The New York City Municipal Lodging House, in one recent year, gave medical care to 6,854 lodgers. The records show 742 cases of pediculi corporis, 508 cases of bronchitis; 413 cases of pediculi capitis, 410 cases of rheumatism, 290 cases of alcoholism, 240 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis, 210 cases of influenza, 208 cases of venereal diseases and 204 cases of varicose ulcer legs.

Women should be received at municipal lodging houses, a separate portion of the building being reserved for them. The "homeless woman" problem is not a large one, but one sufficient to require provision.

MEALS

Meals served to lodgers should be clean, well-cooked and simple, but not varied or elaborate. The meals generally served are supper and breakfast. The New York City Municipal Lodging House observes the following dietary:

Supper, for men, coffee, 16 ounces; milk, 2 ounces; sugar, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce; bread, 6 ounces.

Supper, for women, tea, 16 ounces. Other items, as for men.

Breakfast, for all, oatmeal 8 ounces; milk, 4 ounces; coffee, 16 ounces; milk, 2 ounces; sugar, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce; bread, 6 ounces.

The New York Municipal Lodging House requires no compulsory work of all able-bodied lodgers, and the dietary might be found slight for those who work. For men who accept the offer of the New York City Municipal Lodging House to break stone for several hours during the morning on Blackwell's Island, a good dinner is provided, and their care for the following twenty-four hours is assured. The afternoon is thus left free to them to seek work. Other men are discharged in the morning, or other disposition is made of their cases.

To the Erie County Lodging House, in Buffalo, N. Y., only the more "helpable" men are admitted. Others applying are directed to the police stations, the city thus perpetuating, in part, the system the municipal lodging house aims to do away with. Instead of a work test, Buffalo makes systematic effort to find employment for the men at casual or permanent labor outside the house. The Buffalo dietary is relatively elaborate.

orate. On Monday, for instance, it is as follows:

Breakfast, rolled oats; milk, bread and coffee.

Dinner, rice soup, boiled meat with brown gravy, boiled potatoes, apple butter, bread, coffee.

Supper, fried salt pork, fried potatoes, bread, syrup, coffee.

WORK

A municipal lodging house should require from its lodgers compensatory work sufficient to test each man's willingness and ability to work, and sufficient also to impress upon him the fact that he is paying for what he has received.

The most frequent task given by municipal lodging houses is chopping, sawing, or splitting wood. Some houses require a certain amount of work; some, that the lodger work for a certain time, two or three hours. The time test tends to put a premium on laziness. The "amount test" works a hardship on the understrengthened man. However, the superintendent of the woodyard is supposed to have discernment and discretion.

In some cities the disposal of the manufactured material presents difficulties. I am informed that in Boston the wood is

sold to the city, for school house use. In New York there is no compulsory work test for all. Obligated to deter homeless lodgers from utilizing the lodging house too frequently, the Department of Public Charities, which conducts the house, is forced to hold a threat of court sentence for vagrancy over those who show by their frequent reappearance that they are unable to support themselves. The superintendent is a man of discretion, and the journeys of some lodgers to court seem to be balanced by the extension of the facilities of the house to other homeless men who in his opinion are making a real effort to find work. New York's lodging house has not gone into the wood business, partly because the demand for wood, it is alleged, would be far exceeded by the amount manufactured. To some extent the Department of Public Charities was able to co-operate with the woodyard of the Charity Organization Society, until the industrial depression of 1907 and 1908 rendered the Charity Organization Society woodyard inadequate to meet the demands of the society upon it.

Some municipal lodging houses, as in Buffalo and Chicago, have no work test. Buffalo utilizes the lodgers to some extent for the house "chores," laundering,



KITCHEN WORK.

Erie County (N. Y.) Lodging House.

waiting on table, washing dishes, etc. During 1908 the lodgers did about \$3,000 worth of work in renovating the old house which had been secured for the lodging house, established last year. Both Buffalo and Chicago believe that the main effort of the lodging houses should be to "connect" the man with his work outside as soon as possible. In Chicago, in the first five years' operation of the municipal lodging house, from thirty per cent to thirty-five per cent of the lodgers were referred to paid employment. In Buffalo, of the 7,963 lodg-

Chicago gave 92,591 police station lodgings, and in 1902, through the municipal house, 11,097 lodgings, a falling-off that speaks volumes. From 1897 to 1901, in Chicago, 677,301 police lodgings were given. From 1902 to 1906, the total lodgings given in Chicago were 91,736, a reduction of 585,565.

Philadelphia, through its wayfarers' lodges, conducted by the Society for Organizing Charity, averaged annually from 1900 to 1907, 27,850 lodgings to males. During the industrial depression, all the lodging houses were subjected to



GETTING JOBS.

Erie County (N. Y.) Lodging House.

ers for 1908, the superintendent reports that 3,942 left the city, while employment was obtained for 773, and 1,586 obtained employment themselves.

ATTENDANCE

New York city, in the first eleven years of the municipal house, gave 541,862 lodgings to men; 62,058 to women, and 18,165 to children. The Friendly Inn, Baltimore, conducted by private philanthropy, annually gives from 11,000 to 14,000 lodgings. In 1901, before the municipal lodging house was established,

increased demands. Chicago, in the first six months of 1908, gave 83,892 lodgings. New York city, from December, 1907, to March, 1908, gave about 11,000 a month.

The average number of lodgings given to each man is in Chicago, four, but for the first six months of 1908 was about ten to each man. The average in New York is three nights, in Washington, 2.84, Baltimore, four, and Philadelphia (males), about three.

In Philadelphia about forty per cent of the lodgers are under thirty years of



CHOPPING BUNDLE WOOD AT THE PHILADELPHIA WAYFARERS' LODGE.

age. Those from twenty to twenty-four constitute the largest single group, by five year periods. In Baltimore, men from twenty to thirty form thirty per cent of the lodgers, men from thirty to forty sixty per cent. In Washington, twenty-seven per cent in 1907-08 were between twenty and twenty-five years old, the group with the highest percentage. New York's figures show only that the great bulk of the lodgers are from twenty-one to fifty years old. Forty per cent of Chicago's lodgers in the first six months of 1908 were between twenty and thirty.

In regard to physical condition Chicago figures show:

Able-bodied, ninety per cent; physically deficient, seven per cent; sick, one and five-tenths per cent, and crippled, one per cent.

REGISTRATION AND ATTENDANCE

The municipal lodging house furnishes a center for the treatment of the homeless. All homeless and wandering men, applying for charity, should be required

to apply for relief at this place only, and registration of the most necessary facts should not be neglected. A card index should be kept, rather than a day book. The latter makes quick reference to previous visits of lodgers impossible, and throws an improper responsibility upon the memory of the employes of the house.

Facts required on admission should confine themselves to such items as name, date of admission, age, occupation, nationality, conjugal condition, last employment, last employer. It is important that the lodger should not be made to feel that he must undergo a searching quiz. A generous proportion of his statements, particularly if details are insisted upon, will be found false or inaccurate, and useless for reliable statistics. If the superintendent can win his confidence gradually, he will gain far more truthful statements. Such added information can later be recorded upon the index card. Answers to such questions as, "How long in the city, county, state?" are

apt to be false, and do not affect the temporary treatment of the lodger.

Investigation of references should be made by the municipal lodging house, particularly if the superintendent is to co-operate with the lodgers in finding employment for them. Theoretically the house acting as a free employment bureau, should be a good distributing point for casual labor. Practically, placing homeless and vagrant men in positions, with permanently good results, seems difficult and rare. The difficulty lies not in the lodging house, nor always in the men, but in their depleted physical condition, the tendencies to idleness which they have long been developing, and in their actual inefficiency in practically any jobs found for them.

From one-half to two-thirds of New York city's lodgers give a correct last reference. The New York lodging house does little in the way of finding employment. Of the 77,739 persons lodged in 1907, 55,526 were "discharged to self," meaning that they were let go in the morning. Only 148 were sent to situations in the Department of Charities and 144 to work "outside." About 13,000 were utilized temporarily in various bureaus of the department, mainly at the lodging house itself.

In Baltimore, of 9,935 men lodged at the Friendly Inn between October 1, 1907, and June 30, 1908, employment was secured for only sixty-eight. The management states that this figure does not include the men who secured temporary work, putting away wood, etc., for which they received money. The figure 68 does cover all employment secured outside the inn and its connections. In Philadelphia, very few

employers apply to the lodges for men or women to work for them permanently. Somewhat more secure men for temporary work. "How many wayfarers secure work of any sort through suggestions given them at the lodges, it is impossible to say. They are shown want ads from the morning papers; they are told of places heard of in other ways, in which men and women are wanted; and they are directed to employment bureaus."

In Chicago, investigations were made by a police officer. Special or suspicious cases were selected. About one-half were found "good," that is, the lodger told the truth. Very little investigation has been made at the Chicago lodging house since the introduction of the "work test," by which is meant "reference in ordinary times to proffered work by means of the employment bureau. To be able to refer a lodger to paid employment is at once to take him out of the ranks of the unemployed and dependent, is his best inspiration for renewed endeavor toward independence, and it leaves him quite without excuse if he carelessly or indolently throws the opportunity away." In the winter of 1907-08, the municipal lodging house was able to direct nearly 9,000 men to work on the Chicago streets.

The per capita per diem cost of maintaining municipal lodging houses is indicated in a general way by the table shown on page 758, which however must not be regarded as more than suggestive. Reports of various cities, or letters from superintendents of municipal lodging houses have been used; in the case of Philadelphia, Baltimore



NEW YORK MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSE.

and New Haven the lodging houses are under charitable or semi-charitable management. The statements of annual expenses do not include depreciation funds; several houses show only a nominal rent or no rent at all. The Buffalo lodging house reckons as assets some \$3,000 worth of lumber, beds, paint, furniture, etc., purchased during the first year of the existence of the house, I am not informed whether Baltimore has a credit side to its expense account from the sale of wood. I do not learn from the annual report of the Boston Municipal Lodging House whether the wood business reduces the total cost of maintenance of the lodging house.

Nevertheless the statements, when placed in comparison, are interesting, for they show that it is not inexpensive to maintain a city lodging house. The indirect economy to the city is in the centralization of relief, in the adequate ground

that it affords for discouraging street begging, in the accompanying discontinuance of police station lodgings, in the chance given to the lodgers to find encouragement and temporary work and in the chance to get permanent work if possible through "making good" in their temporary employment.

If the municipal lodging house, however, is not conducting a work-test efficiently; if it does nothing more than shelter without further helping the lodgers, while it requires the able-bodied to work; if it is failing to be an employment agency of proven value; if it fails to render its lodgers less anti-social; if it fails to use its daily, monthly and yearly experience in the study of the "down-and-outer" with the view to contributing toward the solution of the problem of homelessness and vagrancy; if in short it is "getting nowhere" year after year beyond the point reached in previous

LODGING HOUSES.—COST.

	Chicago 1908	New York 1908	*Philadelphia Year ending Aug. 30, 08	Boston Year ending Jan. 31, 08	Washington Year ending June 30, 09	Buffalo 1908	*Baltimore 1907-08	*New Haven 1908
Attendance ..	68,665	96,651	39,818	25,585	7,424	10,936	1907 14,507	4,841
Per capita per diem cost..	\$.227	\$.426	\$.181	\$.406	\$.448	\$.821	\$.179	\$.274
Salaries and wages.	\$7,482.42	\$12,044.09	\$4,196.14	\$3,988.51	\$1,920.00	\$1,768.55	\$3,212.00	\$2,781.45
Rent.....	Building owned by city	3,600.00	108.00		120.00	862.50		
Fuel.....	1,216.76	2,591.60	1,217.03	1,087.15	150.00		350.00	119.90
Light.....	695.33		347.20	544.38	112.00	384.12		90.94
Clothing and Bedding...	208.11	5,296.88						
Repairs.....	1,599.29		482.20	310.78			337.73	127.78
Provisions...	3,560.33	12,562.72	4,131.29	3,433.52		4,111.72	1,800.00	361.76
Furnishings..	828.84		575.20	183.00		3,000.00	93.75	
Laundry.....	Free, at House of Correction			256.25	175.00	674.61	200.00	
Wood — for work			7,749.81				5,546.77	4,846.53
Stable			3,841.61				575.00	
Other items..		5,099.63	2,529.66	676.43	1,223.00	1,170.29	275.00	66.53
TOTAL.....	\$15,591.08	\$41,194.62	\$25,178.14	\$10,480.02	\$3,700.00	\$11,971.79	\$12,390.25	\$8,394.89
CREDIT			Sale of wood \$17,977.14		Profit on wood \$73.55	Perm't imp'mts \$3,000.00	Sale of wood \$9,781.71	Sale of wood \$1,067.07
NET COST ..			\$7,201.00		\$3,326.45	\$8,971.79	\$2,608.54	\$1,327.82

* Under private charitable management, but performing the functions of a municipal lodging house.

years, then the municipal lodging house, at a per capita per diem cost of forty cents or over, is certainly expensive.

On the face of it, it would seem that Philadelphia is pointing the way, with its combination of wayfarers' lodges, woodyard and suggestions of employment opportunities and low per capita cost. Yet conviction forces itself upon the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, as it must upon practically all of the municipal lodging houses managed by public charity, that the mere shelter, or the mere woodyard, or the but partially functioning employment bureau is much too expensive in view of the returns. This will not mean that the municipal lodging houses should be given up, but rather that they should be developed along lines of tangible help for the lodgers, lines that would not notably increase the cost of maintenance, but would cap so to speak the partial efficiency of a house without a woodyard, or a house that is insanitary, or a house that is not getting the homeless men of the community.

The great problem of unemployment, so far as these wandering lodgers are concerned, seems to be their inefficiency and their lack of chances to find work. Their inefficiency will probably render their tenure of position at any time short, but on the other hand it is probably an unwarranted assumption that if the city takes care of them for a night or two they will find their own work or leave town. If a city is to keep the men mov-

ing (as it must), it should keep them moving so far as possible into jobs.

Several months ago the commissioner of charities, Robert W. Heberd, in New York city invited the Joint Application Bureau, maintained by the Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, to co-operate with the municipal lodging house in maintaining a social secretary every night at the lodging house, to single out the specially helpable men. The report of the first three months shows the following facts, among other very interesting items:

Total number of men, April 1-July 1..	12,902
Average number of men per night....	143
Total number of men interviewed....	2,293
Average number of men interviewed each night	25
Total number of men directed to J. A. B.	238
Directed to employment agencies....	381
Directed to relief societies.....	93
Woodyard tickets given.....	216
Men working woodyard tickets.....	45
Men definitely helped at J. A. B.....	68
Work secured by J. A. B. for.....	38
Transportation given by J. A. B. to...	35
Clothing given by J. A. B. to.....	

The "social secretary" is still an experiment. Such effort, however, developed by experience, should indicate the higher functions of the municipal lodging house. The cost of the social secretary for the three months was \$300. What in a lodging house giving accommodations to 143 a night a social secretary does, in a smaller lodging house the superintendent should do.

THE SEATTLE PRISON CONGRESS

ISABEL C. BARROWS

The annual meeting of the American Prison Association took place in Seattle, Washington, August 14-19. The president, a capital presiding officer, was J. T. Gilmour, head of the Toronto, Canada, prison. The official register showed more than two hundred and sixty in attendance, from thirty-one states, besides representatives from Canada, Cuba and Hawaii. Fifty-seven names of women were on the list, many of them of persons occupying official positions. Sev-

enteen sheriffs were among those in attendance, a class not often seen at prison meetings. Of course there were prison doctors and chaplains, many of them, and at least forty-two heads of prisons and reformatories, besides directors, inspectors and managers. In addition to these practical persons there was the usual sprinkling of judges, lawyers, college professors and men interested in the science of penology and the improvement of the laws pertaining to the treat-

ment of criminals and the prevention of crime.

In spite of the counter attractions of the beautiful fair grounds and the interesting city there was an excellent audience three times a day, which is strenuous work for any but the enthusiastic. It was not strange that some few might have been seen wandering among the exquisite flowers that make the charming setting of the various buildings of the fair, or studying the collections from far away Alaska, the Philippines and Hawaii. Indeed it was not necessary to go so far from the meetings to find things of interest and one group of ought-to-have-been listeners, to my certain knowledge, were late one day from having so long watched the magical way Seattle and Tacoma have of grading their streets, by powerful hydraulic assistance. Giant streams of water break down the hills, and the soil is carried in huge pipes and deposited just where it is wanted to make new land, while the water seeps off into the bay.

Two afternoons were given up to serious frivolity, a trip across the bay to "watch Tacoma grow" and test its claws; and one to visit the exposition as guests of the managers, with a dinner to the congress followed by the closing session on Thursday night, with the usual words of gratitude and appreciation. Next year the American Prison Association, A. W. Butler president, meets with the International Prison Congress in Washington, D. C.

Lack of space prevents more than an allusion to the opening exercises, with welcomes from the governor of Washington and the mayor of Seattle; the acknowledgment by Mr. Pettigrove of Boston; the brief, manly address of President Gilmour, calling special attention to the value of personality in dealing with prisoners and better care of the young to prevent crime; the prison congress sermon by Dr. Matthews; and the winding up speeches on Thursday night. There is not even room to give a full list of the men and women—Mrs. J. Ellen Foster, special agent of the Department of Justice among the latter—who took part in the sessions. Those who desire to know all about the con-

gress should subscribe for the volume of proceedings, through the secretary, J. G. Byers, New York city.

The subjects discussed were the reports of the various standing committees on criminal law reform; on preventive and reformatory work; on prevention and probation; on prison discipline; and on discharged prisoners. The special committee on the International Prison Congress also reported through the chairman appointed last year, Dr. Charles Richmond Henderson, who now leaves the committee, having been appointed by President Taft commissioner for the United States in the place of S. J. Barrows, which will make Professor Henderson president of the coming prison congress in October, 1910, in Washington.

The chaplains had their own meetings, as did the physicians, open to the public and dealing with such subjects as tuberculosis, the mental and physical characteristics of criminals, etc.

The current of the congress ran smoothly most of the time, though there were some eddies and a few places where there was more or less rushing of water over stones, especially when the noisy newspaper stream emptied its flood into the more peaceful channels of the congress. The first whirlpool of this kind was when a dignified scientific paper entitled *The Indiana Plan* was presented. It was written by Dr. H. C. Sharp, formerly of the Indiana Reformatory. It described in carefully chosen words the methods of dealing with habitual criminals and other undesirable persons who have fallen into the hands of the state, in such a way that they can never again reproduce their kind. This was not a purely speculative paper, which might then have relegated it to a purely medical assembly, but it was a report of the successful application of the methods adopted in hundreds of cases. As men and women are alike interested in the subject of a pure birth rate, and as both men and women are subjected to the treatment, it was evidently eminently proper that the sober-minded members of the congress should deal with this disagreeable but necessary topic. Four hundred and twenty-one such operations

have been made with great success, so it is no longer an experiment and in Indiana it is sanctioned by law. There were, however, a few persons who objected not only to public discussion of the subject, but even more violently to this method of dealing with humanity.

The first to spring to his feet to cut off discussion was Fred. H. Mills of New York, who thought the whole thing an "outrage." He was quite willing to trust nature to look after the reproduction of the race. His super-sensitiveness, however, was suddenly overwhelmed by facts and figures. He had moved that discussion be suppressed and that there should be no attempt to "usurp the prerogative of the Almighty," but President Gilmour ruled that while one out of every 192 persons in England was a charge on the public, it was necessary to discuss means of preventing such a great waste of humanity. Several ladies spoke warmly in favor of the Indiana idea, as did Mr. Longfitt of Pennsylvania, who said that that state was now caring for 150 feeble-minded descendants of one family. Miss Krueger of the Humane Society of Seattle, gave some startling facts showing the need of preventing the birth of children to the most depraved men and women. The person who most vehemently sided with Mr. Mills was Warden Hellstrom of North Dakota, who seemed, however, to forget that the law is meant to deal only with confirmed and habitual criminals and with persons with several generations of criminals behind them, when he cried: "Are you prepared to have your own offspring treated as this paper suggests? Do you pretend to set yourselves up as greater than the Almighty power that put us on earth? We can stand a whole lot of reforming ourselves before it is necessary to perform operations to prevent men and women from coming into existence. This doctrine is damnable, dangerous, inhuman and unconstitutional!"

Upon which delegates from Connecticut and California quietly stated that those states have likewise adopted the Indiana idea. So the subject was threshed

out and the great preponderance of favor was with Dr. Sharp and his paper.

Another ripple in the congress was caused by a newspaper interview which Mr. Mills had given to an enterprising reporter, in which the gentleman from New York was represented as having little faith in the probation methods of Judge Lindsey of Colorado and of being opposed to education in prison. As Judge Lindsey had spoken two or three times a day for three days, once to an audience of two thousand in the auditorium at the exposition, his methods were well known and his reputation has long been quite secure, but there were a dozen members of the congress ready to join in the fray in his behalf. President Gilmour allowed one speaker, herself dealing with many persons on probation, to stand up for the absent judge. It is about ten years too late to criticise the methods of a man whose works speak for themselves. The item in the count that Mr. Mills disbelieved in education in prison, save to learn to work at the industries of the institution, was ignored by the wardens, for prison schools are found almost everywhere and are considered necessary, not to make clever forgers, but more intelligent mechanics.

Several of those who were to read papers did not appear but there were brief discussions of some of the subjects thus neglected. Among others there was one on outdoor labor for prisoners. Mr. Laughinghouse, superintendent of the North Carolina State Prison, said that out of their 700 prisoners 350 were employed in the open on 20,000 acres of land, to the great improvement of their health and morals.

Mr. H. M. Blackstone, superintendent of the Massachusetts State Farm, was asked to speak of their work. He said: "We have three hundred men at work in the open. When an officer goes out with twenty-five men the degree of restraint is at a minimum. He may have a revolver in his pocket, but I will wager that he couldn't hit a barn door a hundred feet away if he tried. The great thing is to select the men carefully so that the warden is sure of his ground."

A warden from Colorado said that they have from forty to sixty men 160

miles away from the prison building a road. They are not locked up at night, but sleep in tents, absolutely open. Some of them are working ten miles from any town or village and it would be perfectly easy for them to hide and get away, but there have not been more than fifteen escapes and all but one within a few days were returned to the prison walls. The work they are doing is admirable. The prisoners take pride in it. The effect on discipline has been excellent. The state makes a present of ten days for faithful conduct for every thirty days on the road. That is in addition to the regular good time allowed, but conduct and work must both be up to the mark. When men are paroled from the road work they are less likely to be returned for breaking parole than when allowed out from the prison. Of course that is partly because the men are carefully selected. A law passed last winter gives the same good time to men working at any pursuit outside the walls. Out of 738 men 300 are now working outside the walls, in gardens, in parks, in beautifying the streets. The men are allowed to have an audience with the warden at certain times and three-quarters of them ask for this audience to beg for an opportunity to do work outside. Men with families have the first chance. This out-of-door employment has been found to have excellent results in Colorado.

C. B. Roe, superintendent of the Washington Reformatory, insisted that he could "go Massachusetts one better." During the last year they had had fifty men working outside in the wilderness, clearing the land, stripping the soil to get at the clay below, making bricks and working as farm hands. They are absolutely on trust and they are loyal and faithful. It is true that the men are selected with great care. He said:

I may make mistakes; there may be some escapes, but in more than a year there have been but two escapes from 129 men. Every Sunday morning is given to interviews with the men inside and they come to ask for trust and for employment. It is rare to find a man more than three months in the institution. They are trusted and they prove themselves worthy of trust. Most of these men want a friend, some one to call them

by the name their mother or sisters used.

We are building a place to make men, not a prison. I gave directions to my architect to eliminate everything that made it look like a prison. It is an educational and disciplinary institution. The men are taught to go out to become good members of society. None of them wear stripes and they wear their hair as they choose. They are received between the ages of sixteen and thirty.

Mr. Blackstone asked to add to his former statement that more than a hundred of his men were entirely free and under the restraint of no one but themselves.

When Gov. A. W. Gilchrist of Florida was invited to send delegates to the prison congress, he replied that he would come himself, for if there were better methods to be learned those should be in attendance who would have the power to put them into practice. So he was one of three governors at the meetings. When asked to speak on the conditional release of life prisoners he gave a general report of prison conditions in Florida, of which the following is a summary: The prisoners of Florida are worked outdoors in the turpentine woods, in saw mills and on farms. Most of them are sub-leased, but the law requires that they shall not work before sunrise nor after sunset, nor more than ten hours a day, nor on Sunday, unless they wish to work overtime for extra pay. They are under the supervision of the commissioner of agriculture. The lessees must furnish comfortable quarters, good clothing, bedding and food, medical attendance and medicine, in addition to \$275 for each prisoner. The requirements are an iron cot, clean mattresses, three sheets, two pillow cases, two pairs of blankets and two night shirts for each prisoner. "And," interpolated the governor, "when you remember that the great majority of convicts are 'niggers' who never heard of a night shirt before, you can see that the state is looking well after her prisoners." A hospital has to be provided by the lessees well equipped with modern improvements. There is a vegetable farm at each of the forty-one camps. The death rate is not high, only 12.60 per thousand with 1,750 prisoners. The work in the open air has proved

beneficial. They get three months' good-time out of twelve for good behavior. They are also released on parole and that bestows the right of citizenship.

Florida produces about half the turpentine used in the United States and the demand for labor is great, but the convict labor does not compete with labor outside. Work in phosphate mines is another prison industry.

The governor seemed to think that there have been misrepresentations about the lease system in his state.

We have a heap of trouble with the ministers. Some of them are good, but there are Judas Iscariots among them, and they write up articles and keep us in hot turmoil. Our disposition is to help the prisoners all we can. If these people really wish to help us do that they will come to us directly and any wrongs will be inspected and reported. We have a kindly feeling between the races. There is a peculiar tie between the children of the old slaves and the sons of the old masters and a nigger would always go to the southern white man quicker than he would to any one born north of Mason and Dixon's line, if he wanted a friend.

Governor Gilchrist also paid a tribute to Judge Lindsey and his work: "I am satisfied that our Old Master never made many such men as Judge Lindsey, but I'm mighty sure he made him for the work he is doing." He was also delighted to see that so many women took part in the congress and spoke of an instance in his own part of the country, where women have not yet begun to usurp the places of men in business. "There is a young lady in my town earning her own living and when I heard that she was making about a hundred dollars a month I told her she ought to be married, for she was in a position now to support a family! And as to discussing prison questions I see no reason why women shouldn't do it as well as men, and judging from some I have heard here they do it better."

President Gilmour thanked Governor Gilchrist, saying he had helped illuminate a dark subject!

An hour Tuesday afternoon was devoted to the memory of some of the members of the association who have passed away since the meeting in Rich-

mond last autumn. Mr. Diehl of Pennsylvania recalled the long, faithful life of Rev. John L. Milligan; Rev. A. M. Fish of New Jersey spoke in grateful memory of Mrs. E. E. Williamson; Rev. Mr. Batt spoke touchingly of Michael Heymann; Warden Wolfer paid a high tribute to Col. C. E. Felton, and Dr. Henderson with glowing words recalled the life and work of S. J. Barrows.

When the subject of aid to discharged prisoners was under discussion President Gilmour said: "Unless I had a very strong and efficient organization for the special purpose of obtaining work for released prisoners I would not have charge of a prison for twenty-four hours. What is the use of working to help a man in prison if he is to be neglected the day he goes out? The crucial day in a prisoner's life is the day he leaves the prison walls. For ten years I have had the assistance of two organizations, one known as the Prisoners' Aid Association, which has a very competent man who gives his undivided time to this work; and the other the Salvation Army which is doing a more potential and influential work than I have words to express. It has a man who gives his entire time to our prison and by my orders he is admitted with the same freedom that I am. He not only visits the men in prison but looks after their families at home. We discharge six hundred men a year and for ten years we have not had a man go out who required work and was willing to accept it but work was provided for him. That is our test. A man may profess to be an angel, but if he declines to take a reasonably fair situation I have little hope for him. All of these associations are so much appreciated that the government votes \$3,000 a year to each. Discharged prisoners go more readily to the Salvation Army than to all the other religious denominations combined."

Amos W. Butler of Indiana in opening the discussion on life prisoners, laid stress on the value of hope in the treatment of all prisoners. There should be no "life" prisoners except such as bring it upon themselves, for the day is coming when all prisoners will work out their own salvation and if the man does

not do that, if he shows that he is not fit for release, then he should be retained in the institution indefinitely. He thought the deterrent effect of life imprisonment was over-estimated. Many persons now condemned to life servitude could be released for their own welfare and with safety to society.

A clear statement as to the International Prison Congress was made by Dr. Henderson. It will be held in Washington early in October next year. Congress has appropriated \$20,000 towards the expense. It is hoped that it will be possible to take the foreign delegates to visit many penal and reformatory institutions. A voluminous report of such institutions is to be prepared for distribution among the delegates from other lands. The plans for this congress were well in hand before the death of Mr.

Barrows. Referring to them Dr. Henderson said: "While I must meet my own responsibilities in my own way, as new problems arise, I must be true to the main lines and principles which were so admirably decided on in the administration of my noble predecessor."

In this connection it may be pertinent to add that the writer, who was present at the meeting of the prison commission in Paris last July, was glad to see the hearty greeting extended to Dr. Henderson there. The many members from all over Europe recognized in him a worthy successor to the man who for so many years had represented the United States on that commission.

The writer regrets that space does not permit printing the abstracts of the papers. The complete discussion may be obtained in the printed report.

MAKING BOSTON OVER

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

NEW YORK

GENERAL SECRETARY, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

"Nothing more than civic courage and a united purpose guiding popular intelligence are required to meet fully the opportunities which point the way. There are many signs of promise of a new and more progressive era. Confidence in the future will assure its actuality."

Such is the deliberate declaration with which the most remarkable report on city improvement ever undertaken in this country is concluded by the Metropolitan Improvements Commission of Boston.

On June 15, 1907, by act of the Legislature of Massachusetts, this commission was appointed to "investigate and report as to the advisability of any public works in the metropolitan district which in its opinion will tend to the convenience of the people, the development of local business, the beautifying of the district or the improvement of the same as a place of residence." The commission served without pay. An appropriation of \$25,000 was made to cover all ex-

penses. This was later increased to \$35,000 and the final report was called for March 15, of the present year.

This commission, composed of Benjamin N. Johnson, Henry B. Day and Desmond FitzGerald appointed by the governor, and Thomas J. Gargan and Robert S. Peabody appointed by the mayor of Boston, represented in its personnel at once the highest type of public spirit and of technical knowledge.

The first two acts of the commission demonstrated its fitness for the task of helping Boston to look herself in the face. First was the appointment of Sylvester Baxter as its secretary, second the publication of a general notice inviting information and suggestion from any citizen who could assist in arriving at sound conclusions. Letters were especially sent to mayors and other officials, boards of trade, improvement societies and similar associations within the metropolitan district, and to any citi-

The cuts accompanying this article are taken from the report of the Metropolitan Improvements Commission, and from two reports of the Boston Society of Architects.



HARBOR, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Boston has a similar opportunity for harbor development.

zens throughout the state known to have special knowledge or interest in any line of the proposed investigation. These two steps secured to the project the intensive service of the highly trained specialist and the extensive value of a democratic interest.

Many physical factors enter into the development of a city seeking to deny the applicability of Cowper's stricture that

"God the first garden made,
And the first city, Cain!"

It must be provided with adequate thoroughfares as means of communication within itself and with the outer world; its buildings must be appropriate to their purpose, whether designed for public service, business enterprise, or for the homes of the people; its water supply must be pure and sufficient; its schoolhouses adequate in location, size, sanita-

tion, beauty; its temples inspiring, yet accessible and democratic; and it must be supplied with breathing spaces, pleasure grounds, parks and boulevards—all belonging to the whole people—where children may play, lovers may court, the weary may rest, the discouraged find inspiration, strangers find welcome, the sick recover, and the dying be comforted with sunlight and beauty. Despite the municipal achievements which Boston can justly boast, and the unequalled park system of the district, it cannot fairly be claimed that all these ideals have been realized. There are crowded and ill-ventilated tenements; misplaced factories which pollute the regions they impoverish; railroad properties tolerated in wrong places because the choice has been that or nothing; schoolhouses crowded, poorly designed and surrounded by ugly structures; whole sections

from which the boasted parks and playgrounds are too remote to be of service; streets too narrow for their purpose; and a splendid water-front, parts of which are unsightly and useless, serving as a barrier rather than a gateway between the wealth of New England enterprise and the world-wide markets beyond the sea.

Recognizing the importance to the entire commonwealth of any improvements made in the metropolitan district, the Legislature assigned a broad field to the commission, but in addition to the general scope expressed in the term "public works", the following definite topics were specified for study and investigation: "The establishment of a systematic method of internal communication by highways, the control or direction of traffic and transportation, and the location of such docks and terminals as the interests of the district may demand."

GETTING DOWN TO BUSINESS

It was manifest to the commission that so broad a program could not be realized even in a lifetime and that a reasonable beginning demanded concentration upon a definitely selected group of subjects. Even on these final judgment is not claimed, but we are modestly asked to regard the work as preliminary.

It was evident to these experts that the paramount question in the improvement of Boston and its environs is the development of transportation. Naturally, therefore, the major part of the report is directed to a discussion of streets and avenues, the establishment of adequate railway approaches and terminal facilities, and the improvement of the harbor.

Prior to the appointment of the commission four public measures were adopted by the state Legislature, all tending to express the same general conviction that the metropolis of the commonwealth must search out and correct her deficiencies and awaken to her opportunities as a center of commerce and industry, or suffer in the race with other great cities, involving the entire state in her failure. These four acts were as follows:

March 28, 1907, the Legislature ordered the Boston Transit Commission to investigate the congestion and delay caused by teaming traffic and the movement of freight in Boston, and to report its recommendations; May 28, 1907, the Board of Harbor and Land Commissioners was directed by the Legislature to investigate and report as to the advisability of constructing and maintaining a system of metropolitan docks in the city of Boston, to be owned and controlled either by the commonwealth or by the city; June 7, 1907, the Legislature gave to the finance commission, appointed by the City Council of Boston to consider the financial condition of the city, the amplest power to summon witnesses and compel the production of books and papers bearing on that line of inquiry; June 10, 1907, the Legislature appointed the Commission of Commerce and Industry to investigate the present condition and future possibilities of the industries of this commonwealth, the present condition and future possibilities of transportation, of manufactures and of industries, and to consider what might be done by legislation, by executive action or by any other means for the exploitation and development of the industries of the commonwealth.

In addition the mayor, by order of the City Council, appointed a commission to consider the sufficiency of, and possible improvements in, the docks and water terminals of Boston harbor. In 1907 the Boston Society of Architects published a most valuable report of its committee on municipal improvements. These studies, according to Mr. Baxter, were a determining factor in the creation of the present commission.

Evidently the people of the city and state, instead of complacently resting in the self-admiration with which they are popularly credited, have determined to make a thorough self-examination, and recognize that no community can live and prosper unless built on a solid economic foundation. The present commission appears justified in saying that "there is every reason to hope that Massachusetts and Boston will be brought to a sound consciousness of their great opportunities, and to the permanent adoption of wise and courageous methods by which these opportunities may be realized."

That the future of the city and, indeed, of the greater portion of New England, depends on the railroad terminal and port facilities of Boston is recog-

nized as a fact fundamental to the entire enquiry. On this point the report says:

Indeed it has become almost a commonplace to point out the fact that there is hardly any industrial area in the country the interests of which are to so great an extent dependent upon the expedition and economy with which transportation is effected. The raw material for our great manufacturing industries is in the main brought from a distance. Practically no part of it is produced on our own soil. Again, an overwhelming percentage of the finished product of these industries is shipped out of New England to the ports and cities of the world. It may be truly said that in comparison with its manufacturing output Massachusetts produces nothing but the constructive and organizing ability of its business men and the skilled labor of its artisans, who, through their combined efforts, receive the raw material from a distance, make it up into the finished product and ship it again to far-off points. Vital to the welfare of such a community is, and always must be the effectiveness and excellence of its transportation system.

THE CITY AND THE RAILROADS

Nearly one-third of the report is devoted to a study of the present steam

railroad system within the metropolitan district with suggestions for their improvement, submitted by George R. Wadsworth, engineer. He notes the growing trend toward consolidation for the purpose of effecting economy—a tendency particularly noticeable in railroad management—and expresses the belief that the problem of local traffic in the metropolitan district cannot be adequately met unless the selfish interests of competing lines are subordinated. "One fact stands out paramount to all—the necessity of concerted action to the subjugation of selfish motives."

Within the past few years community of interest has so far controlled local problems of railroad management that the eight trunk lines entering Boston (each maintaining its freight and passenger terminals) have been reduced to three managements with three passenger terminals. The consolidation in freight handling has progressed less rapidly, the four chief divisions of one road (Boston and Maine) even maintaining their physical identity much as before their absorption under one management. In this in-



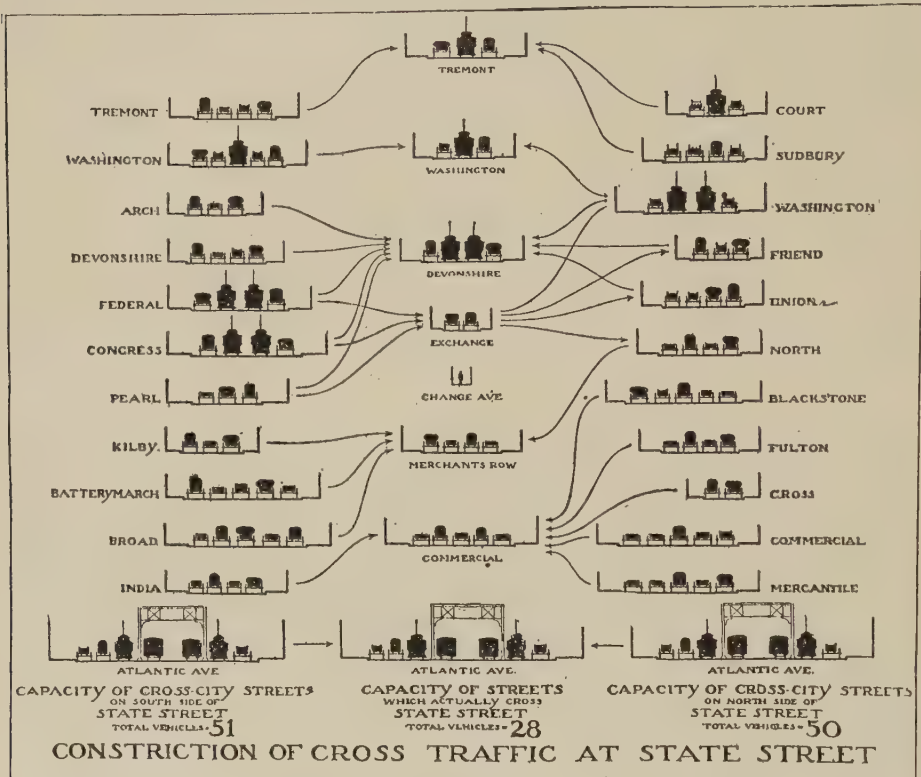
SKETCH FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF ARLINGTON STREET.

stance about the only advantage the public enjoys is the convenience of dealing with one management instead of four. It is this rigidity of separate and competing interests which is deplored and regarded as possibly the greatest obstacle to the development of ideal traffic facilities in Boston.

Indeed the special superiority of this report is due no more to the broader scope assigned the commission, permitting a full consideration of the present situation and probable development—

probable growth of transportation in Boston, and at the same time flexible enough to admit of adaptation to any unforeseen variations.

At present there is no adequate means of communication between the three chief trunk lines entering Boston. The Grand Junction Railroad is the nearest approach to an intramural belt line, but just misses connection at several important points, while the Union Freight Railroad, running its entire length along public thoroughfares, with antiquated



even remote—than to the “social” point of view which appears prominently in the theses of Mr. Wadsworth and the other experts.

The research of a technical expert would be required to intelligently review the details of Mr. Wadsworth’s proposed policy, but to even a layman it is evident that he looks far into the future and outlines, from the standpoint of a common social interest, a program of development based on the present nature and

equipment and limited yard capacity, serves to impede rather than facilitate traffic, and its effectiveness as a means of connection continually decreases. The bulk of freight in Boston must be trucked through the streets. Furthermore, by reason of the rough or otherwise unsuitable condition of the natural avenues of transit, much of this must be carted through the crowded business section, adding to expense of shipment and to traffic congestion. The added expense

is, of course, absorbed in the through traffic and does not appear as a separate item to shipper or consignee. Nevertheless it serves as a handicap by forcing high freight rates and greatly narrows the area within which Boston industry can successfully compete with other markets. It is contended that were every merchant of Boston able to secure service at the local freight station nearest his place of business, instead of being compelled to ship or receive his goods at whatever terminal yard chances to end the trunk line patronized, there would be a reduction in the amount of team haulage through the streets of the city of about 6,000,000 ton miles in a single year.

An extensive belt line system for the handling of freight in the district has been proposed at various times, but Mr. Wadsworth advises against this. Its successful operation in many inland cities does not, he maintains, argue for it in Boston where the chief freight and manufacturing problems are interwoven with water-front development. A belt line, to reach and connect the various trunk lines at the margin of the city would add greatly to the mileage, while the chief argument for it, viz., that it would stimulate industry by adding to the area of desirable manufacturing sites, fails to recognize that the very regions through which the line would inevitably pass, have already been largely preempted as desirable residential sections where the development of manufacturing plants, instead of enhancing, would greatly deteriorate property values.

He argues for a large clearing yard in Somerville near the present yards of the Boston and Maine (three of which could be abandoned) and connected, by short extensions of the Grand Junction and Union Freight Railroads, with receiving yards in Somerville, West Cambridge, Boston, East Boston, Chelsea and Revere, effectively joining the Boston and Albany and the New Haven systems, and bringing all conveniently to the water-front. The existing terminals in Readville and Braintree are retained. The only considerable track extensions proposed are in East Boston, being a "mar-

ginal railroad" running from the East Boston wharf along the water-front and connecting in Chelsea with another line called the "East Boston railroad" running from the north end of the wharf along the north border of East Boston.

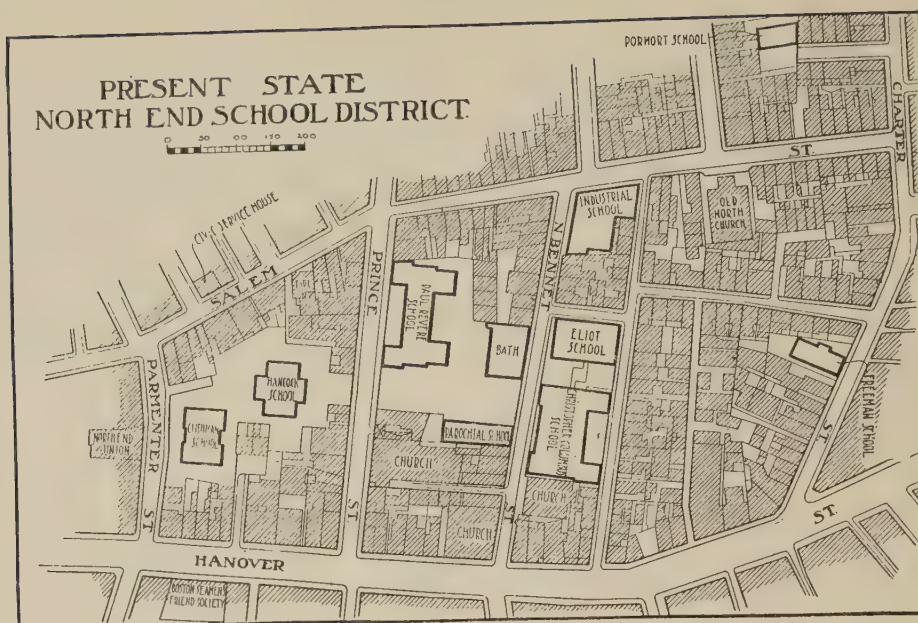
The importance of locating the "clearing yard" as proposed will be recognized when it is noted that at present the Boston and Maine (1907) handles fifty-eight per cent of the gross tonnage of the city, and ninety per cent of the freight destined to and beyond the western terminal of the three lines (Buffalo). An analysis of the freight tonnage hauled through the streets of Boston shows that about fifty-one per cent of the volume would be eliminated by the adoption of the district system of delivery.

The chief expense in the adoption of such a system of freight handling as is proposed would probably be in abolition of grade crossings. Many existing crossings, however, will inevitably yield to demands of safety and convenience in the near future.

THE COMMUTER

The proposition for the development of passenger traffic facilities is less important to the growth of the city, but far more interesting to the general public, and the plan outlined is comparatively simple. It contemplates the construction of a sub-surface connection between North and South Stations, in order to provide for through movement of trains. This would involve transposition of terminal yards, sending the trains from the Boston and Maine system through the city to the South Station to yards on the present property of the New Haven system, while the Boston and Albany and the New Haven trains would pass through to yards on Boston and Maine property north of Charles river. These two terminals would supplant the seven yards at present required to care for the traffic. The plan of yards, stations, subways and connections throughout is based on the theory of the complete electrification of all lines entering the city.

In addition to the two terminal stations mentioned there would be provided



a "market place" station in the heart of the business section, involving only sub-structure platforms for receiving and unloading passengers, and above ground nothing more than suitable entrances and exits.

The present burden of suburban traffic on all steam lines during rush hours is estimated at 23,000 an hour. By the adoption of the proposed plan it is estimated that 92,000 passengers an hour could be handled, which, on a reasonable computation of increase, will be the capacity required in 1965.

LEGITIMATE STOCK WATERING

Nearer to Europe, by 180 miles, than any other important American port, in the heart of the chief manufacturing section for a number of most important American products, and with ready access to the open sea, it is difficult to understand why Boston has never yet entered on a comprehensive plan for the commercializing of her most valuable community asset—a seaport.

When the stupendous undertakings in a number of leading European ports, notably Liverpool, Antwerp and Hamburg, are considered—the natural obstacles surmounted; the farsighted policy

of development which, when undertaken, appeared chimerical; the wise and public-spirited administration that has successfully subordinated personal and selfish interests to the welfare of the port—the outline of harbor development for Boston, referred to by Mr. Wadsworth and still further elucidated by Desmond FitzGerald, consulting engineer of the commission, seems modestly conservative.

The problem of terminal development in the metropolitan district involves several radical changes in the water-front, the most important railroad terminal docks being projected at South Boston and East Boston, extensive tracts of flats being dredged and filled in for the purpose. A conception of the possibilities involved is had by noting that the primary installation outlined for industrial docks north of Woods Island Park covers an area fifty per cent in excess of the entire Bush Terminal properties in Brooklyn. It has the special advantage of close connection with every trunk line entering Boston.

The entire plan for a new port is graphically shown in "Plan B" by Mr. FitzGerald. It provides for a new inner harbor, extending from the present

site of the East Boston docks of the Boston and Albany, recently developed at great expense, nearly to Point Shirley, a distance of about two miles, with a width of one-half mile. The channel would be dredged to a depth of forty feet, and the filled-in flats at the south, between this and main ship channel, would provide for a free port, covering Governor's Island and the flats adjoining with a system of docks and wharves, together with excellent sites for the manufacture and exhibition of goods, on a tract which now encumbers the harbor. To the north of the new harbor, toward Winthrop, a system of docks nearly two miles in length is provided. The whole system is to be well connected at the west end with steam roads, and a passenger wharf for ocean liners is suggested at South Boston.

The major part of the territory involved is the property of the state or the city, with the exception of Governor's Island, the inclusion of which in the proposed free port would in no way interfere with plans of the federal government. It is recognized that these extensive designs could not all be carried out at once. But the importance of having some comprehensive plan into which each future extension will fit, is patent. The present haphazard expansion is wasteful and ineffective, every new development calling for the destruction or disuse of valuable properties. Every important European port has a comprehensive plan, usually involving extensions which cover a period of several generations. To secure the site needed to provide Boston with almost unlimited harbor facilities is a first step, easy to take now but jeopardized by every delay. Development of the proposed improvements is a problem doubtless needing further consideration at many technical points, but upon the main essential features there seems little possibility of difference of opinion.

The report of the commission contains a valuable study by Richard A. Hale, C.E., of the waterways of the state and their possible use. Objections, based on estimates of cost and utility, are advanced against all the proposed canals,

with the possible exception of the ship canal from Boston harbor to Taunton river. This would be of great value to southern coastwise shipping, but its estimated cost is over fifty-seven million dollars, and the line would be compelled to cross the railroad at eleven places, the highway at forty-six, and would require twenty drawbridges.

PLEASURE WITH PROFIT

Mr. Baxter adds a report on the water front of Boston bay which, in general, confirms the more detailed suggestions above referred to, and points out the necessity of guaranteeing valuable dock sites against other uses which would preclude their development for maritime purposes. He approves the water-front appropriations by the Metropolitan Park Commission for recreation purposes, but calls attention to points at which this use should have been subordinated to the demands of commerce and urges, where necessary, such construction of large freight piers in the vicinity of crowded sections that the roofs can be utilized for recreation, thus causing them to serve the double function.

By a comprehensive development of the Charles and Mystic rivers it is urged that great economy could be enjoyed by neighboring industries, possibly many new enterprises be encouraged and, by a proper classification of the water-front of Boston proper, the fishing industry be still further developed, ship building revived, and the proper railroad terminals assured. Farsighted planning is again urged to save the squandering of this paramount asset of the city by conflicting interests. The specific use to which various sections of the harbor are best adapted must be determined and the purpose adhered to. Every important European port has given careful consideration to this matter and has left nothing to chance or to the policies dictated by narrow private interests.

The tonnage of vessels entered and cleared in Boston, based on five year periods, increased thirty-two per cent from 1895 to 1900 and fourteen per cent from 1900 to 1905. For the correspond-

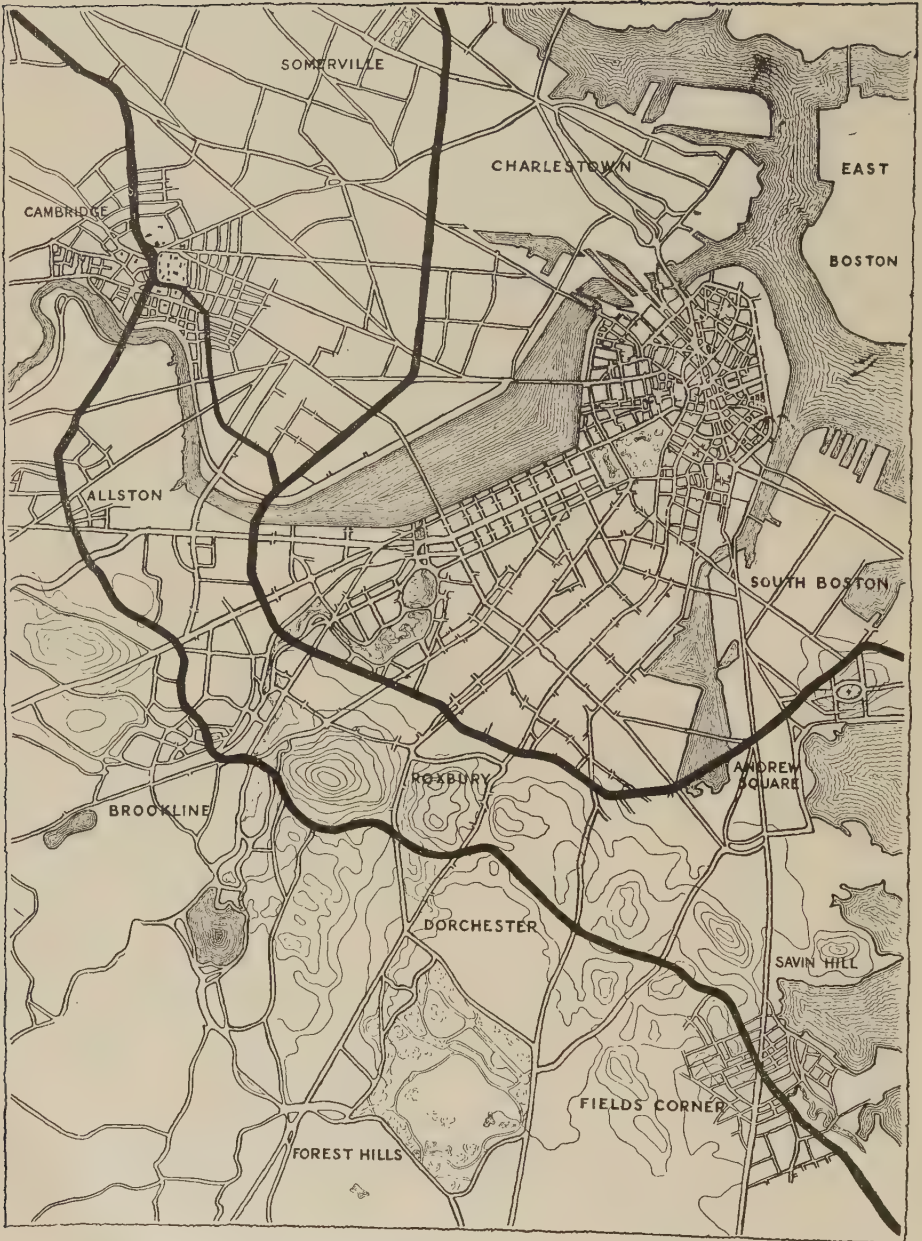


DIAGRAM SHOWING LOCATION OF PROPOSED INNER AND OUTER BOULEVARDS.

ing two periods New York showed an increase of twenty-one per cent and eighteen per cent, while Philadelphia showed an increase of thirty-six per cent and a decrease of two per cent, and the figures for Baltimore are one hundred and two per cent increase and twenty-eight per cent decrease. In the value of import merchandise Boston shows the largest percentage of increase in the last five year period, being forty per cent as against twenty-six per cent for New York, seventeen per cent for Philadelphia and twelve per cent for Baltimore. In the value of exports Boston lost twenty-two per cent in the period, a greater decline than is shown in any of the other ports named. In manufactured products the metropolitan districts increased fifty-six per cent in the last census decade. These figures point clearly to the importance to every citizen and every interest in Boston, of exploiting to the highest point the natural advantages, thus far neglected, of this wonderful harbor.

THE OPEN ROAD

The streets and avenues of Boston and the thirty-nine cities and towns comprising the metropolitan district, constitute a genuine historical diagram. In the early days it was natural that the steep, isolated hills, radiating valleys and irregular shore line of Boston basin should be controlling forces in the development of the bewildering maze of streets that so commonly provoke the stranger trained to the monotonous uniformity of our American city squares. As the population of the district increased, the valleys and shore lines were followed in reaching outlying communities from the city proper. On the whole a fairly successful system of thoroughfares and local streets grew up, radiating from the metropolitan center. The chief defect, which serves to retard the development of the district, is in the circumferential streets connecting outlying towns with one another. People of Boston need not greatly concern themselves with the gibes of strangers on their "cow paths," but it is important, as shown by Arthur A. Shurtleff, the landscape architect employed by the commission, that

our citizens as a whole complain of faults in our system of highways which waste the time and strength of man and beast, seriously hamper the transaction of business, interfere with the development of the water front, prevent the construction of convenient street-car lines, and isolate communities from one another. Can we expect home industries to thrive as they should or new industries to seek us to the extent that they might, while this faulty situation continues to exist, and has never been taken in hand by authorities properly constituted to rectify it? The district has faced similar problems and has solved them in a workmanlike way; it has provided itself with comprehensive systems of metropolitan water supply, trunk sewers and parks, which are accepted as models; certainly no community knows better the method by which co-ordinated highway improvements may be effected.

The general scheme of the radial and transverse highways is shown to be remarkably simple and conservative, it would appear. It is proposed to open up dead ends of streets, connect important thoroughfares that now just miss the needed link, widen a number of streets now so narrow as to be an annoyance to traffic, in some instances improving nearby local streets so as to divert a part of the traffic from important points of congestion.

The circumferential thoroughfares present the most difficult problem, forcing through the crowded streets of Boston a volume of traffic *en route* between suburban towns and of no value to the city, but which cannot at present be detoured for lack of adequate streets to connect. "To force the traffic of the north and south halves of the district through channels no more ample than Devonshire street and Exchange street and over the Harvard Bridge, the latter with no good northern connection, is an absurdity." The plan for correcting this defect is perhaps best shown in the diagram for the inner and the outer boulevards in the report of the Boston Society of Architects.

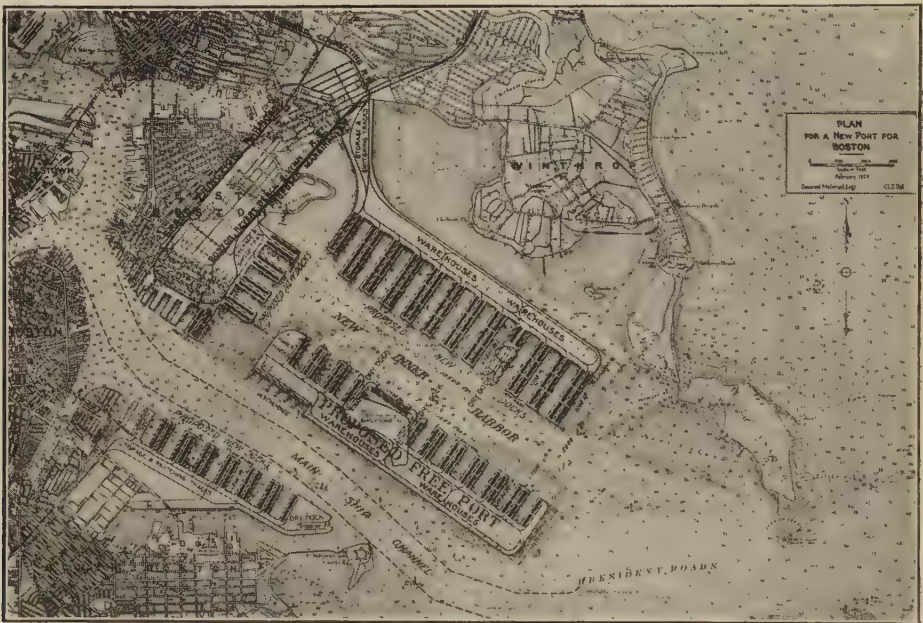
The local streets in many suburbs are repeating the mistake earlier made in Boston, so palpably shown in the failure of Merchants' Row, of Broad, Kilby and Congress streets to carry across State street. Boston has seen the error of such deformities and no delay should be tolerated in getting the whole district on some comprehensive basis of street de-

velopment to guarantee against a repetition of such waste and confusion. Conditions in this respect are becoming more aggravated as suburbs increase in industrial importance and the growth of motor vehicle traffic tends to render an influential part of the community oblivious to distances or grades.

Apparently the selfish or shortsighted desires of local land-improvement companies and failure of various towns to recognize the growing importance of nearby communities chiefly account for the short, amputated streets, dead ends along railway lines or river borders, and

A careful analysis of the width of streets indicates points at which special attention could prevent or relieve conditions of congestion, an extreme example of which is seen on Court street at the Ames Building, where a heavy volume of traffic all day struggles to flow through a space between curbs less than twenty-five feet wide. The rule recently put in force restricting traffic to one way only in many narrow streets has ceased to be a matter of ridicule, and finds increasing favor as its service in relieving congestion is appreciated.

The public parks and parkways have

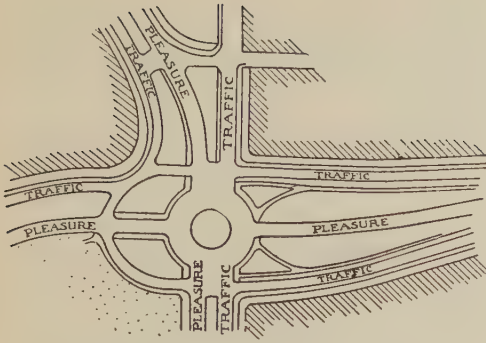


PLAN FOR A NEW PARK FOR BOSTON.

the lack of a thoroughfare leading in any direction save toward "The Hub." A campaign of education is essential to assure these local communities of the advantage to themselves of aiding in the development of a unified scheme for the whole district. And some authority, similar to the Metropolitan Park Commission, should be empowered to condemn, purchase, and gradually develop along lines warranted by present tendencies and future prospects. Only so will it be possible to "safeguard the rights of the community against the whims or misfortunes of individuals."

been so wonderfully developed in the Metropolitan Parks system that they have required from this commission little more than an appeal that care be taken to properly relate neighboring streets, to provide for the division of business and pleasure traffic, and for the safeguarding of public approaches against unsightly or offensive private building enterprises.

A number of public squares at traffic centers show, either by example or contrast, the importance of a definite scheme of development as to the nature and composition of buildings constituting a group, so as to produce artistic harmony



FELLSWAY ROAD JUNCTION STUDY.

and an effect of common service. "It is too often the custom" says Mr. Shurtleff, "to regard each structure as an independent problem, and merely to place it near another building in the blind hope that a succession of such enterprises may produce an arrangement at once pleasing to the eye and adapted to convenient use." The protection of the playgrounds in Brookline by surrounding streets, the division of traffic at important centers by monuments or park plots and proper grouping of buildings, as for example in the Harvard College yard at Cambridge and the Harvard Medical School, are duly considered.

The North End Schoolhouse group, crowded together and so surrounded by private buildings that many classrooms require artificial light even on bright days, is refreshingly excoriated. "Boston cannot regard itself as an enlightened city while it allows the children of the North End to be schooled in such shameful darkness and without proper playground space. . . Of what economy is it to the community to maintain schools, . . . which injure the eyesight of pupils and place a premium upon feeble bodies, and which tend to render the children to that degree incapable of profiting fully from the education which the schools provide?"

The widening of Exchange street, the development of Post Office and Haymarket squares, the extension of St. James avenue to relieve the congestion of Boylston street, and the development of the Back Bay Fens are among the important recommendations. The build-

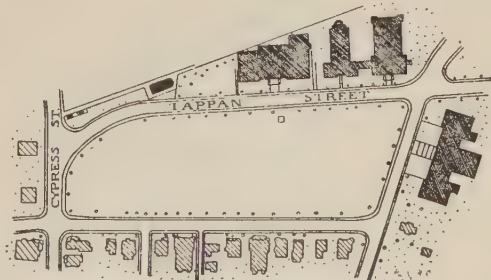
ing of earth causeways in Charles River Basin would serve the practical purpose of greatly reducing the cost of numerous bridges certain to be required in the future and might be placed in mid-stream like islands to produce an effect similar to that afforded by the Isle de la Cité, Paris, and others in European cities, only on a larger scale. Still better, by connecting these to form one long island "its recreative service would be immensely increased and the appearance of the basin would be controlled by it, rather than by the bridge structures and their approaches."

It is obviously impossible to even refer to the careful treatment Mr. Shurtleff has given each locality comprising the district in his study of a metropolitan plan. These recommendations will be of special interest to public-spirited citizens of the various towns and together constitute a comprehensive and unified plan.

Soon after the appointment of the commission one of its members, Robert S. Peabody, made an extensive tour in the study of European and American cities and ports. The results of his investigation were published by the Boston Society of Architects and presented to the commission. It is a type of what we may hope will be still more extensively done in the near future by the congressional committee recently assigned to the study of European ports and waterways.

MAKING GOODNESS PAY

A chief obstacle to such city improvements as street opening and widening, park development, location and construction of public buildings, is the special burden they lay on the already overtaxed



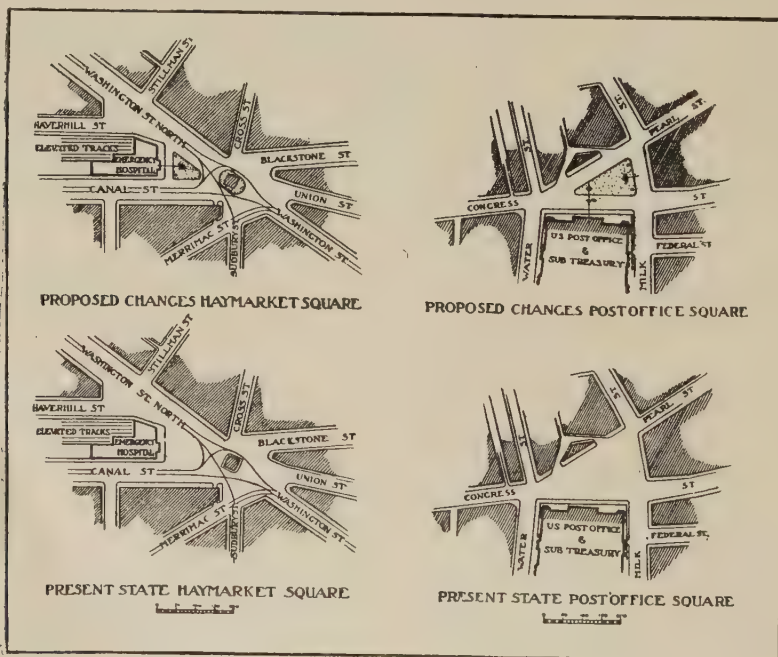
BROOKLINE PLAYGROUND.

citizenship. Thus nearly all American cities find their desire to indulge in civic improvements curbed by the fact that all previous achievements have saddled a new and heavier debt on the city, or have so added to the tax burdens as to handicap business or make rents prohibitive. Apparently the significance of the fact that a few citizens always grow independently rich with every new street development, or park opening, or public building, did not dawn on our proverbially astute countrymen until recently. We now begin to see, what most Europeans have known for years, that every such improvement, if wisely done, is a local asset which invariably enhances neighboring property out of all proportion to the sacrifice of the property owners. The burden is spread on the whole city while the unearned increment centers on the fortunate few. Until very recently it has been regarded in Massachusetts, as in many other states, an infringement on private property rights for a city to condemn more property than actually needed for proposed improvements. Even the new law, permitting the purchase of entire pieces of property, parts only of which are to be used by the public, the

remainder to be resold at enhanced prices following the improvement, is extremely limited in its application and further legislation is needed. The principle of excess condemnation is fundamental to city development. Instead of working injustice to anyone, it is the only equitable way in which the burden can be fairly offset by the accruing advantages. By this method many European cities have been able to realize almost fabulous advances and in such a way as to make the city profit by every forward movement. The prevailing American policy is to encourage unscrupulous real estate speculators or political grafters to make the desired municipal improvements pay tribute to their enterprise or cupidity. While referring to this principle the commission does not urge it for immediate application, partly on the ground that the necessary new legislation might entail further delay.

A NEW CIVIC CENTER

A valuable report is submitted by Mr. Peabody and Mr. Shurtleff on A New Civic Center for Boston. Several sites are mentioned. The first is at the head of Commonwealth avenue at the front of





DESIGN FOR THE COMPLETION OF COPLEY SQUARE.

the public garden. They suggest the erection of a stately executive city building, between the equestrian statue of Washington and the bridge over the lake. This structure might contain the engineering and the financial offices of the city. Sites on Arlington street might also be occupied by public buildings. By this plan a fine avenue would be terminated by a noble arrangement of buildings. "This scheme is evidently open to the objection that it brings public buildings into a distinctly residential neighborhood and that it takes for building purposes land which has long been used for a park and which probably could not be devoted to the use for which the act of 1859 provided without strong public protest."

In default of this, Copley square is susceptible of further development and is located in a section of the city rapidly increasing in importance. The appropriation of the Providence railroad property is also favorably mentioned. This tract adjoins the most rapidly growing portion of the city and is a natural center of business and social importance. Recent reports show a remarkable activity in private building-operations amounting to \$20,000,000 the present year. The recommendations of this commission should lead to a corresponding advance in wisely located public buildings.

CITY DEBTS

Tables showing the finances of the metropolitan district by Henry B. Day supply information from which valuable deductions might be drawn. An increase is shown in the net metropolitan debt from \$3,000,000 in 1890 to over \$33,000,000 in 1899, and over \$60,000,000 in 1908. The tables show that, with few exceptions, the larger the city the heavier the debt burden per capita. In 1908 the total net debt per capita in Boston was \$195, Brookline \$177, Cambridge \$108, Braintree \$34, Hingham \$17, Westwood \$19. The abnormal growth in this burden is the water debt. Why cities theoretically administered by business men should permit themselves to be cursed by such a burden of debt as to cripple industry and discourage further improvements, because, forsooth, everyone in the city needs pure water, is beyond comprehension. The cost of public works to get water from remote regions is recognized, but that those charges should continue to increase out of proportion to the quantity of service required, is denied. A deliverance on this subject by the commission would have been timely, but possibly the graphic portrayal of the situation presented in the chart will arouse sufficient interest. A determination on the part of the Chamber of Commerce, the City Club, or the Boston

1915 directorate to attack this problem until it shall yield, would be a service to every citizen in the district.

WILL BOSTON ACT

After all, the value of this service freely rendered by these careful students of the metropolitan district problems, depends, not so much on the wisdom of their conclusions as upon the possibility of making Boston act. No city in America has been more exhorted, nor has more firmly asserted her ideals, while at the same time appearing content with a progress, mediocre when viewed in the light of her opportunities, though impressive as compared with the achievements of the typical American city. A large element in the city has seemed disposed to "let well enough alone" in the belief that fate will continue to smile on the beautiful city without the aid of scientific ideas of reform or progress. Interviews with many prominent citizens at the time the report appeared gave the impression that considerable satisfac-

tion was enjoyed in the fact that a splendid piece of work had been done, like a church which prides itself on the eloquence of its preacher but never takes seriously the appeals with which his life burns.

Even with the consummation of all the commission urges, Boston would not be the perfect city. There are problems, civic, social, industrial, moral, educational—in a word the whole "human interest" side of city life; quite beyond the scope of this report. On the other hand an adequate economic foundation is absolutely essential to all the social idealists are working to achieve. It is a noteworthy coincidence that such a movement as Boston-1915 should have placed at its disposal at its very beginning so valuable a study of the physical needs of Boston. If its directorate can interpret the dominant features of this report so as to win the co-operation of the populace they will at the same time secure a sure basis for their own imposing edifice of democratic municipal intelligence.

A PLAN FOR CHICAGO

GEORGE E. HOOKER

CIVIC SECRETARY OF THE CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO

Another milestone has been set in the progress of Chicago. It is not too much to say that the carefully prepared and superbly illustrated report issued in July by the Commercial Club for the general physical improvement and future development of Chicago, will mark the beginning of a new constructive era in the career of the city. Not that all the precise proposals of the report will be executed, some of them indeed seem to be fundamentally open to criticism. But it will establish in the public mind the conviction that the general development of the city on scientific and artistic lines should henceforth be undertaken as a definite and conscious aim, to be steadily pursued, under skilled direction. With that conviction lodged as a motive force in the public mind accordant action is bound to follow.

This report is the most comprehensive and by far the most beautifully presented of the more than two score improvement reports made within the last eight years for American cities. It is also the first such report of general scope made for any of the half dozen cities of the first or two million class in the occidental world, although such a study for Berlin is now in progress. It contains 164 quarto pages and 142 illustrations, over fifty of them reproductions in colors.

It is not based upon any series of special statistical investigations made for the purpose, and no data are put forth with it save what appear in the popularly written text. It contains no signed reports by specialists advising the public as to who proposed particular schemes for particular problems and on what considerations. It consists chiefly of finely



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DIAGRAM OF EXTERIOR HIGHWAYS ENCIRCLING, OR RADIATING FROM, THE CITY.

All the arteries composing the system without the city limits exist, except where shown in dotted lines. Present city limits shown by a faint line starting at the lake shore just south of Evanston and ending at the lake shore at Roby.

pictured studies, suggesting, with a good deal of detail, quite definite and often highly ambitious schemes of improvement—studies calculated especially to awaken the imagination and capture the emotions in behalf of an active program. A considerable part of the more than \$80,000 said to have been used in its production was spent in preparing and reproducing, in most attractive color, sketches or paintings, the maps and drawings setting forth the various pro-

jects. The essay-like text treats broadly rather than minutely the topics handled, and is frequently interspersed with general appeals to the basic human sentiments as well as to enlightened practical sense. "After all has been said," it asserts, "good citizenship is the prime object of good city planning. . . . The returns will come in the shape of increase of health and joy of living for all the people." Prepared with the refreshing confidence characteristic of the West, the

report is addressed to that general desire for a beautiful and orderly city which is undoubtedly a great latent force in the community. It is unfortunate that its expensiveness caused the first edition to be confined to 1,650 copies, thus limiting the very object of publicity. The original drawings and paintings, however, are on exhibition at the Art Institute, where they will remain for at least many months, and it is hoped that a second edition of the report will be issued.

The initiative in getting the Merchants' Club—afterward consolidated with the Commercial Club—to undertake to have this report prepared, seems to have come especially from Charles Dyer Norton, now assistant secretary of the treasury, who had previously induced his class at Amherst, at its decennial reunion in 1903, to undertake to have an expert study made for the future development of the campus and surroundings of Amherst College. The need for such a study for Chicago had also been felt more or less clearly by a good many individuals. The Columbian Exposition of 1893 had left an eager and ineffaceable impression of the artistic possibilities of orderly architectural and landscape composition; the park movement had made a brilliant demonstration of social melioration through park and playground distribution inside the city, and had proposed an ambitious outer park scheme; extensive lake front beautification had been discussed and in part begun; the daily pressures of city life were calling for constructive enterprises of various sorts and for the elimination of waste in many directions; other American cities were making careful studies for their physical improvement, and it was also being discovered that the scientific planning of cities was an established practical art on the continent of Europe. The time was therefore ripe for a deliberate attempt to set forth the general needs and possibilities of physical Chicago.

This task was naturally placed in the hands of Daniel H. Burnham, who was not only a Chicagoan, but was the foremost man in the country in reference to city improvement plans. He had been peculiarly responsible for the artis-

tic success of the Columbian Exposition; he had been chairman of the two committees which had made reports respectively for the grouping of public buildings in Cleveland and for the improvement of Washington; he had made a report for the general improvement of San Francisco; at the request of the Philippine Commission he had made plans for the improvement of Manila, and he had made studies for the artistic development of Chicago's water-front. Edward H. Bennett, his chief assistant in the work, had shared the preparation of the San Francisco report, and Charles Moore, editor of the text of the report, had edited the Washington report. Five architects or draughtsmen were engaged in making the various drawings, Ferdinand Janin of Paris came to Chicago and made studies for the civic center, and Jules Guerin, artist, of New York, made the paintings of many of the proposed plans. Thirty months, ending with 1908, were occupied in the undertaking.

Here is a summary of the five main proposals of the report taken in their order:

THE REGION ABOUT CHICAGO

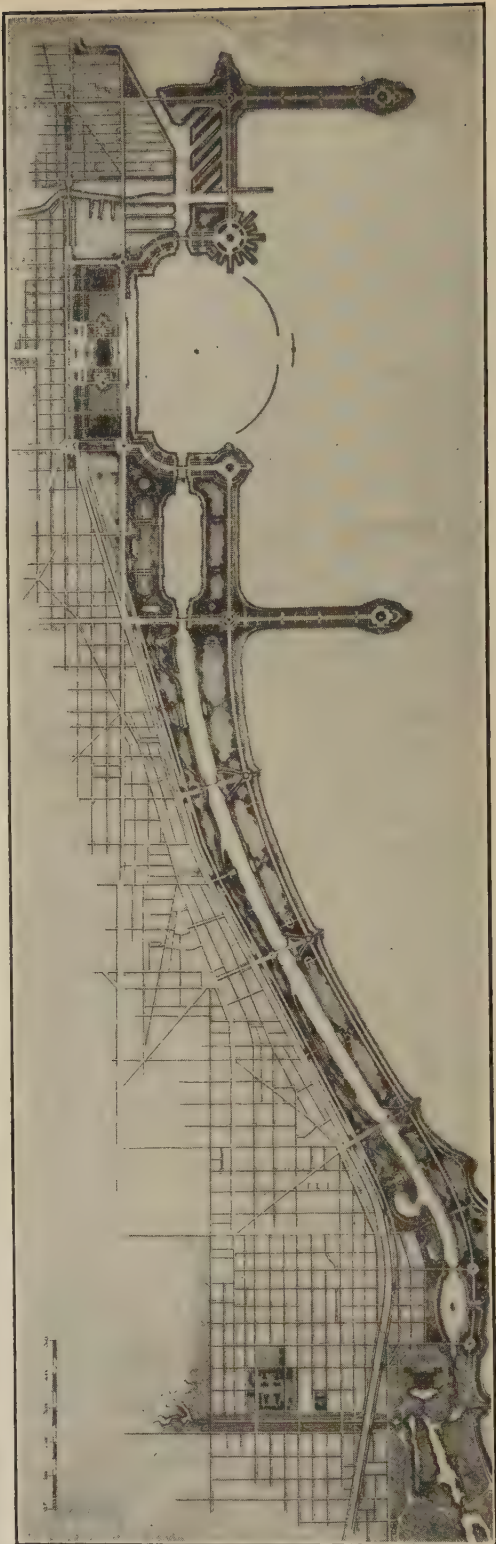
One of the most interesting features of the whole report is the study of Chicago and its fan-shaped surroundings stretching away for fifty to sixty miles. The conception that this region of more than 4,000 square miles is in a sense the real Chicago, sets a new standard of spaciousness in dealing with modern cities. It is found that by supplying a few missing links in the country roadways, four concentric circuit routes can be completed which would traverse the territory at distances of from ten to sixty miles from the heart of Chicago. These, with existing or proposed radials, would afford the region a comprehensive web of communication. This web is accordingly commended to local authorities for gradual completion. As a protection against the devastating operations of unrestrained real estate agents and jerry-builders, it is recommended that a commission should now lay out the portions of this territory immediately adjacent to



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GENERAL MAP SHOWING TOPOGRAPHY, WATERWAYS, AND COMPLETE SYSTEM OF STREETS,
BOULEVARDS, PARKWAYS, AND PARKS.

The parks and parkways encircle the city; they are placed in relation to the radiating arteries, and increase in area in proportion to their distance from the center; also shows the proposed harbors at the mouths of the Chicago and Calumet rivers.



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PARK DEVELOPMENT PROPOSED FOR THE LAKE SHORE FROM JACKSON PARK TO WILMETTE.

This park, enclosing lagoons for boating, may be built by utilizing the wastage from the city and excavated material at practically no cost.

the city, with due provision for streets, playgrounds and public or semi-public buildings and with proper building regulations. Every town in the district, including those farther out, is also advised to form a public improvement commission to guide its own internal development and to co-operate with other bodies

PARKS AND PARKWAYS

The park proposals are likewise more expansive than any thus far made for any city. They rest, however, upon the notion that Chicago in half a century will contain more people than does any city of the world to-day; that it will be spread



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LOOKING SOUTH OVER THE LAGOONS OF THE PROPOSED PARK FOR THE SOUTH SHORE.

Painted for the Commercial Club by Jules Guerin.

for connected public improvements. Finally as a means of further linking up the surrounding territory it is recommended that, through joint action by the states of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois and Wisconsin, a shore road be extended around the entire lower two-thirds of Lake Michigan, to connect the towns along the water.

over a vast area; that the need in great cities for such provision of rural features increases more rapidly than population, and that, in the words of the report, "the city which brings about the best conditions of life becomes most prosperous."

Although 60,000 acres are recommended to be in due course acquired for parks and parkways, yet, considering the wood-



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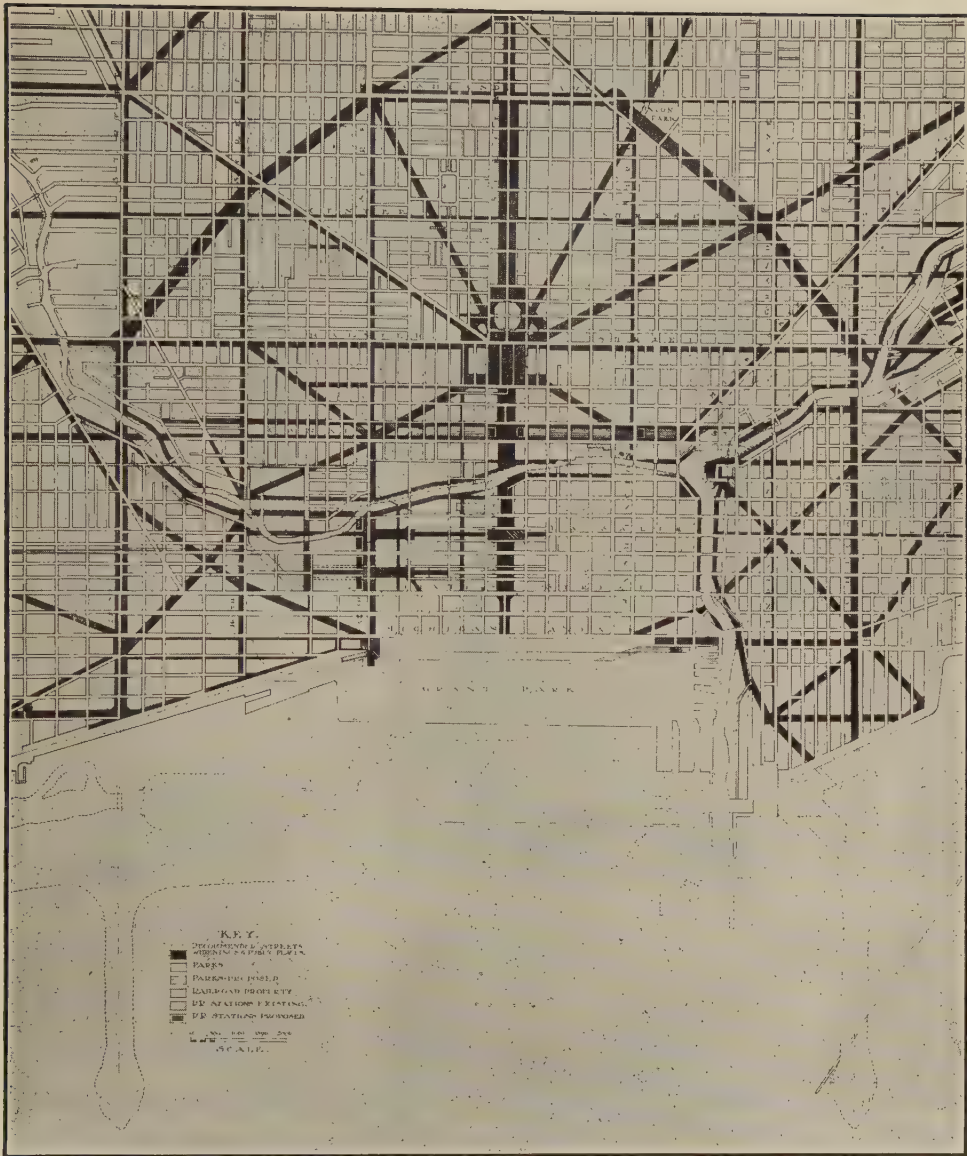
DIAGRAM OF A SYSTEM OF FREIGHT HANDLING FOR LAND AND WATER TRANSPORTATION, TO BE WORKED IN CONJUNCTION WITH ONE ANOTHER.

(1) A central clearing and warehousing yard. (2) A north harbor at the mouth of the Chicago River. (3) A south harbor at the mouth of the Calumet River. (4) Underground freight lines interconnecting the city stations, the central yard, and the two harbors; these lines do not represent exact locations of the routes.

land areas already secured by Boston and those now being sought by certain European capitals, these figures may seem not to be excessive. It is a surprise to most Chicago people to learn how many beautiful wooded and river regions, some of them possessing great variety of contour, there are within an hour's ride of

the city. A great acquaintance with and interest in these areas have come through the popular Saturday afternoon walking trips of the last year and a half.

The project for the parking and general improvement of the twenty-five mile water-front of the city is handled with evident enthusiasm. The proposal in



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PLAN FOR THE CENTER OF THE CITY.

Showing especially well the proposed additional arteries and street widenings in the center of the city, and the proposed locations for the railway stations on a circuit boulevard.

general is that the increasing waste of the city, which is now sufficient to "make" twenty to twenty-five acres of land each year in the lake, be utilized—as it has been already in filling in Grant Park—for creating a system of parks, lagoons and islands stretching along the entire

water-front. The purpose is thus to provide a great popular pleasure resort, reasonably accessible, where the blue lake may be seen, cafés be located, open air concerts be given, and both land and water sports be enjoyed in season.

TRANSPORTATION

The chapter on transportation recommends that, as an inevitable necessity for the due prosperity of Chicago, there be created, at a certain point outside the city, a great interchange and warehouse railway freight center, which shall be connected by subway with the lines and freight stations of all the railroads, with harbors to be created at the mouths of the Chicago and Calumet rivers, and with the existing downtown freight subway system, and that this freight depositing and reloading center, together with the harbors, the connecting subway and the existing downtown freight subway, be operated by a separate corporation formed for the purpose, as a great com-

north and south line across the river westward. It further recommends the enlargement—not the abandonment—of the elevated railway loop or “circuit” so that it may surround the enlarged business district and touch all these stations, and it proposes also the creation of a street railway passenger loop, a passenger subway loop, and a freight subway loop on the same or approximately the same location—the elevated and the street railway loops to have subsidiary or interior loops also.

THE CITY STREET SYSTEM

Extensive changes in the way of widening existing and opening new streets are advised. Fortunately, in ruth-



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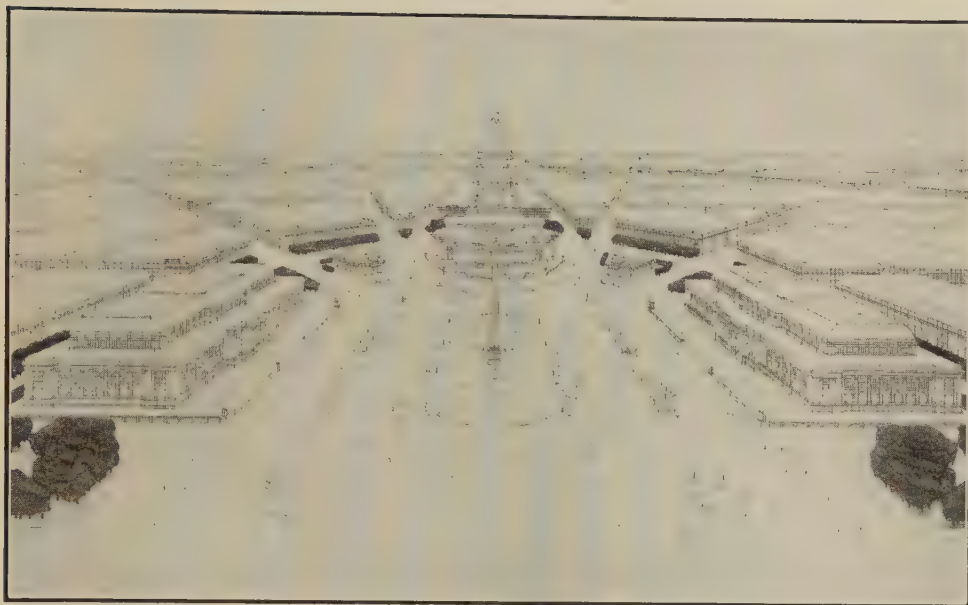
ELEVATION SHOWING THE GROUP OF BUILDINGS CONSTITUTING THE PROPOSED CIVIC CENTER.

From a drawing by F. Janin.

mon freight handling machine for all the railroads of the city. It proposes also a scheme of four interior freight railway circuits or loops, to be connected up largely by utilizing existing railway rights of way, to be built in part at least as subways, and to be operated for the benefit of all railroads, for the better handling of freight.

It recommends that the three railway passenger terminals which have already penetrated certain distances into the heart of the city be pushed back from one-third to two-thirds of a mile, and there assembled, with a fourth, side by side—in order thus to free and enlarge the business district—and it plans the other three passenger terminals in a

lessly extending the checkerboard street plan over Chicago and its old turnpike roads, the pioneers were only able to obliterate these radials at the center of town. Outside that district half a dozen still remain and fragments of as many more. Pointing as they all do, however, toward that center, they are of course, and even if completely restored still would be, inadequate for diagonal circulation in a city which has now come to include 190 square miles. A great number of new streets, mostly diagonals, and aggregating perhaps 100 miles in length, are therefore recommended to be created. Almost as great a mileage of existing streets in the interior of the city is proposed to be widened, the proposed addi-



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VIEW, LOOKING WEST, OF THE PROPOSED CIVIC CENTER PLAZA AND BUILDINGS.

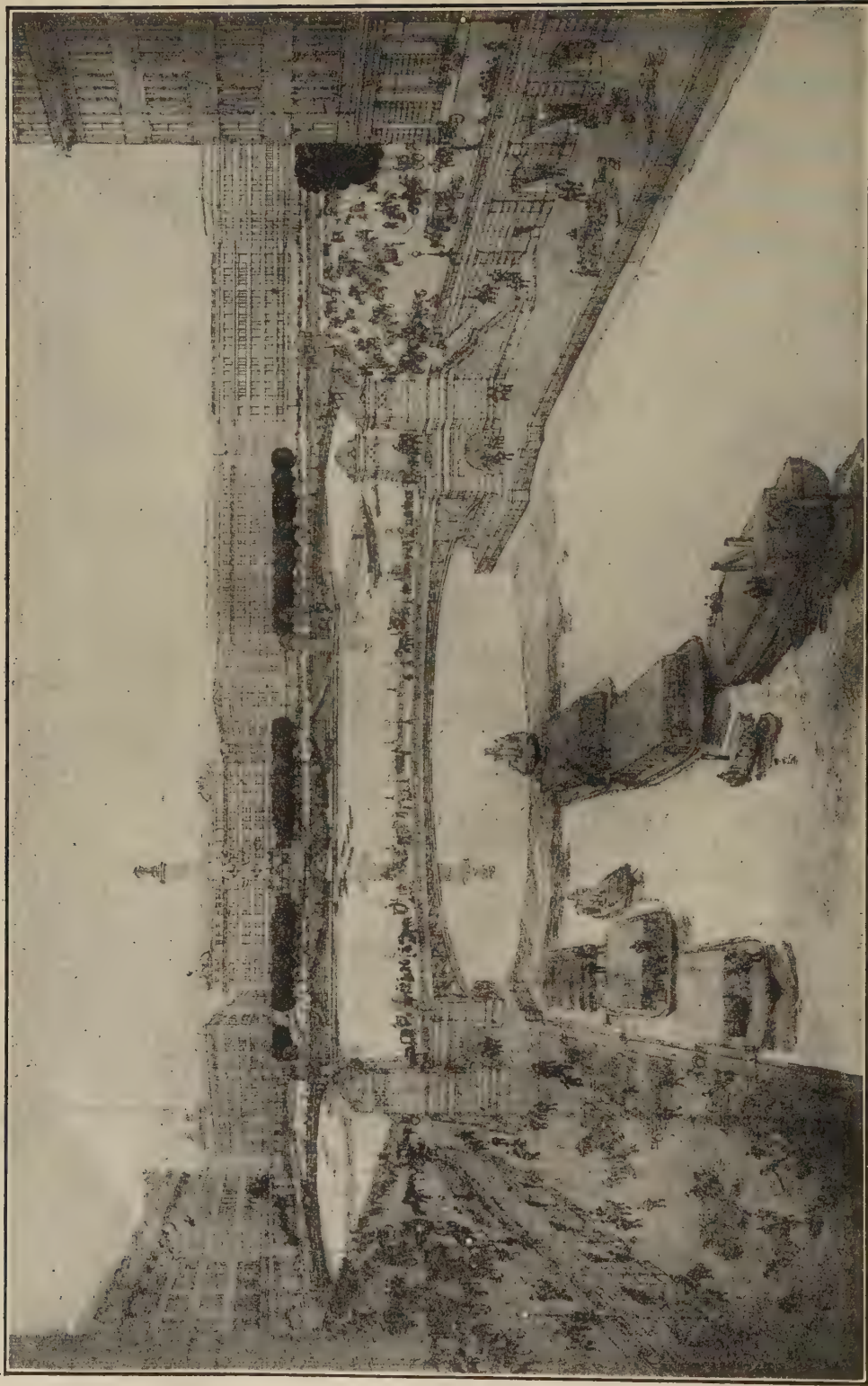
"The Center" shown as the center of the system of arteries or circulation and of the surrounding country. Painted for the Commercial Club by Jules Guérin.

tional strips varying from fifty to over two hundred feet in width. Michigan avenue, widened in its central portion to 246 feet, and Congress street, widened to from 200 to 300 feet, both having differentiated ways for through and for halting traffic, would form respectively the north and south and the east and west axes of the city.

The reformed street system shows streets converging in greater or less number to form many "round" or "star" points, and a series of five roughly concentric boulevard or parkway circuits are outlined as aids to circulation. The improved network as a whole would obviously effect a vast saving of distance in travel, and it shows what a crude thing a mere rectangular street plan, with all streets approximately of the same width, really is. Attention is likewise called to the need for the city to acquire the lawn spaces in front of houses set back on what are to-day important residential streets, in order that if they pass over to business uses this space may be added to the width of the street instead of being built over.

THE HEART OF CHICAGO

The entire aesthetic development proposed converges upon the features at the heart of the city, namely, Grant Park, at the mid water-front, and the civic center a little more than a mile west, with Congress street connecting the two at right angles to Michigan avenue. Grant Park, beside being, with its adjacent yacht harbor and athletic field, the center of the recreation scheme, is planned to be the site of three monumental buildings, viz: the Field Museum of Natural Science, and the John Crerar Library, for the erection of which the money is in hand, and the Art Institute, which is already located on Michigan boulevard at the edge of the park but is proposed to be moved to a new location in the interior. The civic center is planned to be the site of the municipal, county and federal government buildings. It is located near the center of population, the center of industrial development, and the geographical center of the city. The location of the new post office in connection with it is also recommended. At Grant Park would be located therefore three build-



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LOOKING NORTH ON THE SOUTH BRANCH OF THE RIVER.

Shows the suggested arrangement of streets and ways for teaming and reception of freight by boat, at different levels. Examples of the arrangement exist at Algiers, Budapest, Geneva and Paris.

ings representing science, letters, and art, and at the civic center three main and perhaps other subsidiary buildings representing public administration. It is suggested that the former group, of which the chief member would be the museum, might be bound together by corridors into one composition. The latter group, dominated by the municipal building, with its gigantic dome, would be separated from the others by the radial arteries, of which ten would converge upon the obelisk in the open square in front. The two axial thoroughfares, Congress street and Michigan avenue, are conceived of as natural sites for fine stores, theaters, hotels and other important structures. This great formal scheme at the heart of town, is counted upon to give attractiveness, dignity and interest to the city, and, in conjunction with the other improvements proposed, to insure its permanent prosperity.

It is the intention of this article merely to sketch briefly the salient elements of this report. Hence criticism is not undertaken. It may be remarked, however, that the influence of Parisian standards upon the work is evident. It is the formalism of the great master, Le Notre, and his followers, as expressed especially in and about Paris, that is referred to for principles of street planning; it is a Parisian of the present day who, if we mistake not, is alone quoted as a contemporary authority on city planning; it is a Parisian who is brought to Chicago to make special studies for the civic center; it is Paris whose street plan most conspicuously illustrates the "round" or "star" points which characterize the reformed street plan proposed, and the "circuits" which characterize both that plan and the transportation proposals.

It must be said, moreover, that these proposals do not amount to a thorough handling of the subject of transportation in its relation to the improvement of Chicago. There is nowhere given in the report, for example, a map designed to show clearly the main or the local railways of the city either as they are or

as they should be. Yet they are the chief social arteries of today, and the main railway lines present a condition of disorder and need for reform which is not approached in the street system. Nothing in physical Chicago so much needs "straightening out" or so fundamentally affects the city's general organization as does the chaotic network of railways, with their hundreds or thousands of crossings of tracks by other tracks at grade, their resultant loss in efficiency, and their injurious carving up thus of the city into disadvantageous segments.

The proposal, moreover, that the three passenger terminals now located in the business district should be pushed back and rebuilt outside that district—a plan proposed four years ago by Frederic A. Delano, president of the Wabash Railroad, a director of one of the elevated systems of the city and a member of the Commercial Club's plan committee,—is recommended with but slight discussion, although it has never been indorsed on the basis of any disinterested expert inquiry. If carried out it will fasten permanently upon the city the stub-end terminal idea, in disregard of the growing indorsements, in practice and counsel, of the contrary principle of through cross-town routes for all main transit lines, including the main railways, in great towns.

The writer ventures the opinion that the main railways, as the most efficient form of transit facilities, should be carried *through*, instead of being withdrawn *from* the center of town,—where the transit need is most intense—and that to this end terminal passenger stations, used for standing trains, should either be abolished in the interest of consolidated through lines, or should be removed to the outskirts, on a plan allowing local trains to operate across town and long distance trains to do likewise and stop at several points in town. In this position he finds himself in agreement with the engineering report recently made on the subject by the Boston Metropolitan Improvement Commission. He ventures also the opinion that we shall never get a real and logical city planning movement in this country until

the transportation chapter is put at the beginning instead of the middle of the story—in short until we start with the railroad as the primary and basic factor of city structure.

The general effort to secure geometrical symmetry pervades the studies of the report with respect both to aesthetic and practical features. Whether or not this effort is overdone may be a question. A uniform sky-line is everywhere indicated for adjacent buildings, although the "Chicago construction" not only contradicts in its anarchistic practice such uniformity, but makes stupendous architectural effects possible by a proper use of its variety of unparalleled altitudes. The report does not suggest the splendid and picturesque possibilities which might be realized through a harmonious use of such variety—with arched or corridor links perhaps across intervening streets—for the business fronts of Michigan avenue, for example, or Congress street, where there could be no objection to buildings of unusual heights. The omission was obviously intentional.

Some persons feel that the report

should have dealt more directly and at length with questions relating to the improvement of the housing conditions of the common people, and with the distribution of areas for different sorts of business enterprise. It may be presumed, however, that these matters were regarded as belonging to the more detailed consideration of this whole subject which is anticipated for the future.

Whatever be the view of the alleged deficiencies mentioned above, the report will impress every reader as primarily a great revelation of the possibilities of improving Chicago both by rearranging and embellishing its interior organization and by conserving and making available its surrounding beauties of scenery. Mr. Burnham—whose services were rendered gratuitously—and his associates have made an inestimable contribution to the thought and the dynamic forces of their city, and the Commercial Club, which raised the funds for, and through its committees aided in producing this work, deserves the gratitude of the public. It is understood that the club contemplates a stereopticon campaign, with a view to practical action.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

EMPLOYEES AS STOCKHOLDERS

The International Harvester Company has advanced in co-operating with its employes far beyond the very successful Benefit Association and Pension Fund, the inauguration of which was reported in the issue of *Charities and The Commons* for October 3, 1908. We then said of those schemes, "They are likely to be regarded and followed as advanced types of the co-operation of employers and employes and of an employers' independent pension fund for aged employes." We were also pleased to state the fact that more consideration than we have noted in any other similar plan was shown for the exceptional cases upon which hard and fast regulations bear so heavily. This accounts for the fact that 9,200 employes applied for membership in the

Benefit Association during the first nine days after the plan had been put into operation.

Bulletin No. 4 of the Employees' Benefit Association of the International Harvester Company shows that since its organization September 1, 1908, seventy-three death benefits have been paid; sixty-five claims were on account of sickness, and eight were due to accidents. It should be remembered that "accidents" refer to any place or causes, on or off duty, unless due to intoxication. At June 30, there were 19,850 members and the total amount of all benefits paid in the first ten months of operation was \$125,215.51, more than thirty per cent of this sum being for sickness disability.

The pension system inaugurated at the same time is well under way and forty-

one employes have been retired, forty men and one woman. The average age of these pensioners was sixty-eight and the average term of service thirty years and six months. The oldest pensioner was seventy-eight years and four months when his pension was granted and he has a record of over forty-six years of active, continuous service. The average pension in the present group is \$243 a year.

The partnership - stockholding - profit-sharing scheme announced by the company July 1, 1909, also seems to us to be in advance of other similar policies in being most justly considerate of the employes' interests and vicissitudes. The company frankly states it to be to its own interest to offer to sell stock to its employes as an inducement to remain continuously in the employ of the company, and to have and show the active interest of a stockholder or working partner in the business. But so far from making ownership of stock any bar to independence in continuing in or leaving the employ of the company, the safeguards of the employe's liberty, as well as the money he has invested, seem to be as protective to him as they are liberal upon the part of the company.

The offer of the stock is made in an admirably clear, concise and definite announcement addressed to "The Officers and Employes of the International Harvester Company and Affiliated Companies." The details of the offer are prefaced by the simple expression of the company's desire that "all employes, upon whose efforts the success of the business depends, should have a share in the profits." To this end 12,500 shares of preferred stock bearing seven per cent interest, are offered at \$115 per share, and 15,000 shares of common stock at seventy-five dollars a share on which "no dividends have as yet been paid." To provide for as wide and even a distribution of the stock as possible, each officer or employe is entitled to subscribe only for an amount not exceeding his annual wages or salary. If more stock is subscribed for than is available the subscriptions will be scaled still further. To make it possible to acquire stock, payments are to be made very gradually in such

amounts as the subscriber may desire, at the minimum monthly installment of \$1.50 a share for preferred stock and one dollar a share for common stock, to be deducted from the subscriber's salary or wages. That no incentive may be offered to invest too large a proportion of income, not more than twenty-five per cent of what is coming to a man from the pay roll may be deducted on this account. But to put the co-partnership into operation as promptly as possible, the subscriber may not exceed five years in paying for the stock subscribed for, and five per cent interest is charged annually on deferred payments.

Dividends will be credited to the account of the subscriber as part of his payment until his subscription is fully paid, and thereafter the dividends will be paid in the same manner as to other subscribers. In addition to the dividend a special allowance of four dollars per share of preferred stock and three dollars per share of common stock is credited to each subscriber, whose subscription is still in force but not yet fully paid, each year for five successive years, or it will be paid in cash to each subscriber who has received the stock subscribed for and still owns it all and exhibits each year the certificate thereof to the treasurer of the company. A further allowance, after five years, is offered and is to be derived from the lapsed allowances forfeited by those discontinuing payments on their original subscriptions, plus five per cent interest on the amounts thus involved. However, those who discontinue payments, or cancel subscriptions, or leave the service of the company will have returned to them the full amount which they have paid in, with five per cent interest. But if such interruption in the payments for their stock shall be due to causes beyond their control, the subscribers may either receive the shares of stock paid for to date plus five per cent interest, or cash covering the amount paid in and interest thereon. In case of permanent disability or death while in the service of the company during the five years' subscription period the disabled employe, or the heirs of the dead subscriber, have two options: either the money paid in on account of the stock

being purchased and five per cent interest, together with a sum of the allowances of four dollars for each share of preferred stock or three dollars for each share of common stock for each of the five years that expired; or an amount of stock which the total sum will pay for at the original purchase price with interest thereon at five per cent, less any dividends collected on such shares.

Lack of employment due to the temporary shut-down of work or closing of a plant involves no forfeiture to those thus thrown out of the company's employment, even though compelled temporarily to seek employment elsewhere. If ready and willing to resume work, when offered the opportunity by the company, the allowance on each share of stock will be continued during the period of the suspension of employment, and that period will not count as part of the five years in which payment for stock is to be made. As evidence of willingness to resume work with the company, the certificate of the paid-up stock held by the owner, or the receipts for the partly-paid subscription are to be presented in August of each year. The death of the subscriber during the period of the suspension of the company's work, will entitle his heirs to as full benefits as though he had died in active service. Failure to present the original stock as required yearly, or the cancellation of a partly paid subscription, or the failure to resume employment when requested constitute conclusive evidence of the termination of employment.

In two features the full measure of equality in the ownership of stock is denied those who subscribe for it under these conditions offered to the officers and employes of the company; the portion of stock offered them is strictly limited to a specified number of shares, and "all subscriptions shall be made with the express understanding that the decision of the finance committee of the International Harvester Company at all times will be final with respect to the rights of the subscribers and all questions relating to the same."

Although subscriptions were received only until August 15, 1909, six weeks after the announcement of the sale of stock was first made, the success of the

scheme is very significant of the confidence of the employes in the good faith of the company and of their desire and ability to share the fortunes of this great industry.

AGAINST RACE DISCRIMINATION

The strike of the white locomotive firemen on the Georgia Railway against the employment of Negro firemen was not successful in securing discrimination on racial grounds against their competitors. The arbitrators' decision was for efficiency as the only test for employment and for equal pay for equal work. A notable victory is claimed for the Negroes, as they have hitherto been paid less wages than the whites for the same work and were at the still further disadvantage of holding a disputed tenure of their jobs. The most interesting thing about this arbitration is that it was made by southern men who represent the practically unanimous opposition in the South to the Negro's right to vote. The editorial comments in the southern press favoring this decision, sustain it on this very account. They argue that the whites have not been more opposed to the participation of Negroes in politics than they have been favorable to their increased employment and efficiency in industry. Thus the *Baltimore Sun* under the heading, *A Popular Decision*, says: "It is significant that the most influential newspapers in the South and conservative public opinion in the South, while insisting that justice should be done the white firemen, were also outspoken in condemnation of any unjust discrimination against the Negro. And one of the strongest arguments which they presented was that it would be harmful to the South to curtail the Negro's opportunities for employment along lines of work in which he has been employed for many years, thus adding to the number of idle and shiftless black men and increasing the difficulties of a wise and safe solution of the race problem in the South."

Many editors and public men in the South, however, are said to agree with the white firemen in claiming that the Negroes have won a fruitless victory. For, they argue, if the railways are

obliged to pay the same wages to Negroes as to whites, white men will be preferred, not only because, with few exceptions, they prove more efficient, but because of the very influence they have shown in this strike in arousing popular opposition to the employment of Negroes in railway service. On this account it is even charged that the decision of the arbitrators was disingenuous in spirit and dishonest in intent.

There are some southern men even in political life who do not fear to oppose the denial of the franchise to intelligent and industrious Negroes, while it is freely conferred upon the most illiterate, idle and vicious whites, as surely tending to lower legislative, judicial and civic standards in the South.

Former Congressman Fleming of Augusta lost his re-election on account of such openly expressed opinions, but polled a larger popular vote than his opponent, who, however, won by securing a majority of the counties in the district.

A UNIQUE TRIUMPHAL MARCH

A place of distinction in the long line of triumphal marches has been fairly earned by the journeymen bakers of Greater New York, in celebrating the victory won by their recent strike for better wages, shorter hours and more sanitary conditions. Almost the full membership of the six local unions was represented by the 4,000 men who, under the peaceful helmets of their square white hats, proudly filed through the admiring thousands thronging their line of march along the streets of the East Side. Accompanying them was a guard of honor consisting of committees from unions of the trade, representing the German and Bohemian bakers and local unions from Jersey City, Newark, Bayonne, Paterson, other nearby places, and from as far away as Bos-

ton, whence one of the largest delegations came.

As the sign by which they triumphed they headed their procession with the emblem of the people's staff of life, in the form of a mammoth loaf of bread, fifteen feet long, made of four barrels of flour, baked in the largest oven in the city, and requiring a large express wagon to carry it and its decorations of American flags. No less direct an appeal to the human in us all was made by the enormous white frosted wedding cake, three feet in diameter and four feet wide which was carried next on a stretcher.

With the unerring instinct of nature, truly artistic and rhetorical in its effect, 300 little girls all dressed in white—daughters of the striking bakers—were marshalled between this symbol of the newly made home and the warrior fathers and brothers who had won their peaceful victory for themselves and others. With their wives and sweethearts marching by their sides, they were such a family folk as has seldom been seen on parade. Interspersed with the Stars and Stripes and the banners of their unions, huge breakfast rolls and ring coffee cakes, five and six feet in diameter, were proudly borne through the streets as emblems of their household handicraft. Inscriptions of thanks were also gratefully carried in token of their gratitude to the Jewish newspapers for the aid and comfort given them in their hard struggle to win.

This picturesque procession, which took two hours to pass a given point, disbanded at Cooper Union, the great people's forum and the fitting memorial which Peter Cooper, New York's most democratic manufacturer and man of wealth, built for himself and his fellow-citizens. The tired marchers and the unwearied throngs lingered until evening about the doorways of the great hall, where they held a monster mass meeting celebrating their victory in songs and speeches.

COMMUNICATIONS

CONGRESS AND THE DISTRICT

TO THE EDITOR:

I do not consider the statements of Dr. Curtis in his article Congress and the District of Columbia which appeared in THE SURVEY of August 28, accurate or his deductions from them altogether sound. Individual congressmen abuse the district and its citizens but other individual congressmen are full of faith in the district and enthusiasm for progress. The great body of congressmen are not hostile even when they are not actively cordial. A man who has had to know many congressmen and deal with them constantly in relation to the district said to me recently that years of observation had convinced him that Congress "wants to be fair and just in its dealing with the district and that as a body it reflects the desire of the country to make Washington as nearly as possible a model capital."

In what Dr. Curtis says about the people of the district he comes nearer the truth. As a whole, they have local pride, and patriotism and were the ballot given to them, they would not stay away from the polls. But the ballot will not be given. The constitution provides that "Congress shall exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever" over the federal district. Congress will not delegate that power. "The district loses a great deal in missing the civic education of the ballot," says Dr. Curtis, and that undoubtedly is true. But the chance to participate in the government is open to all. The commissioners are very much nearer the people than the legislators of a state. Citizens' associations and special committees to advance various reforms afford admirable training in civic affairs and the influence exercised by the individual citizen in these ways is considerable.

I should like the ballot. I would risk the division and confusion inevitable if we all had it. But I stand no chance of getting it and I do not propose to waste my time and energy butting my head against this stone wall when there are a thousand and one ways in which I can serve the district as a citizen without the ballot.

After all the question is, "Is the government of the District of Columbia a good government?" I unhesitatingly say that it is. I don't believe there is a state where more good legislation has been passed in the last ten years, than in and for the district. And this legislation has come by the joint action of citizens, commissioners and Congress. The citizens create the sentiment; the commissioners give it voice; Congress makes the law.

And the education of Congress on playgrounds, tuberculosis, penology, and along countless other lines makes the influence of the citizen of the district reach far beyond the little territory for which he toils.

"WASHINGTON."

SYMPATHY A FACTOR IN INSPECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

Among several admirable articles in THE SURVEY of August 21, 1909, I noticed especially the one by Alexander Johnson with the above title. Following immediately after that of O. F. Lewis on The Jails of New York State, it seemed to me to carry an all important and useful lesson in regard to the former. I have long and urgently contended in season and out of season, that mere official inspection was not sufficient to obtain true and enduring reforms, except in a very limited measure. We must have well selected, volunteer workers, properly appointed in each county, as frequent visitors, with power at least, to investigate thoroughly each and every penal institution and subsequently report their findings to the New York State Prison Commission. The latter could then use its ample authority under the law, to compel observance of existing rules and could establish others which experience showed to be essential. If it had not the power to do this, it could get it through the Legislature and the governor. Meanwhile, however, instead of occasional supervision on the part of local officials, often imbued with politics, greed, or callous indifference to manifest duties, we should have the wise, helpful, repeated visiting on the part of those whose deep, heartfelt sympathy was immensely important. In Mr. Lewis's admirable article is pictured the terrible conditions which exist very frequently in our jails and at the same time he intimates how, perhaps, the public may be awakened to a due and active, effective sense of its great, crying responsibility. For the while, as Mr. Lewis writes, "not public opinion but persistent work by the few will be the agency for reform." As one of those who feel this necessity keenly and deeply, and who yet hope that prisoners will some day very soon—let us earnestly pray,—appeal to us practically, for assistance in a similar way as now do all interests relating to "bad housing, tuberculosis, child labor, woman's toil and kindred injustices of our social system," I have written this communication. May it arouse to earnest and immediate doing from many good and true ones and may this action shortly lead to searching public inquiry and compel further reforms in the one and only way. BEVERLEY ROBINSON, M. D.

Westport, Essex Co., N. J.

A Correction.—In last week's issue of THE SURVEY, on page 720, appeared an item regarding the Fraternal Congress in Boston. A line was omitted in the paragraph reading as follows: "I have been fighting for adequate rates for many years and do not feel tired of it; nor do I want to see the end of the fight." This paragraph should have been: "I have been fighting for adequate rates for many years and do not feel tired of it; but I want to say that I don't see the end of it."

Proper Treatment of Floors a Preventive of Disease.

HOW TO KEEP FLOORS FREE FROM DUST.

THAT public measures for the suppression of dust are absolutely necessary to public health is the contention of J. Crinon, who writes on "The War with Dust," in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris). Eminent American authorities concur in this opinion that dust is responsible for the transmission of disease, and that in schools, hospitals, stores and public buildings, where people are wont to assemble, the danger of dust-poisoning is greatest.

How, then, shall we get rid of dust? Surely not by dry sweeping, for to quote from the article by M. Crinon—"Dry sweeping must be rejected as very dangerous; it displaces the dust, raises it into the air, without doing any good. It ought not to be permitted at all."

The ideal method of reducing dust to a minimum is to treat floors with a preparation that will catch and hold all dust particles and germs so that they may be swept up and collected, without raising any of the dust into the air where it could circulate.

Of course proper ventilation is a material aid in reducing the amount of circulating dust, but the question of eliminating dust entirely has not as yet been given the attention it rightly deserves—and the attention *that will be given it* as soon as the public becomes more fully informed as to its dangers.

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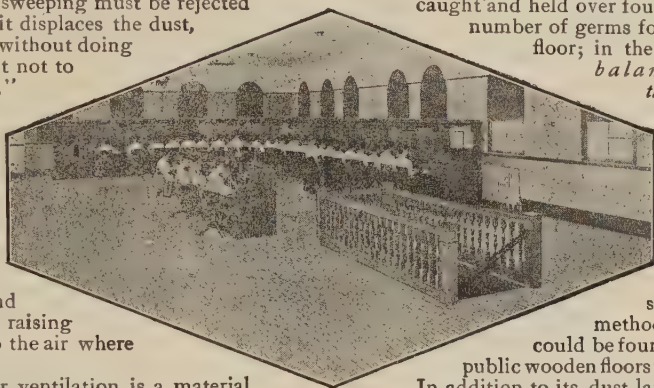
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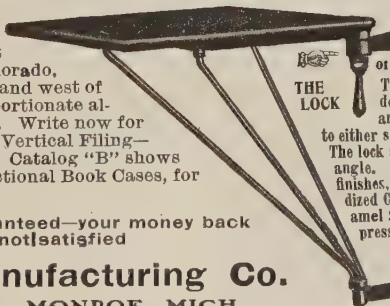
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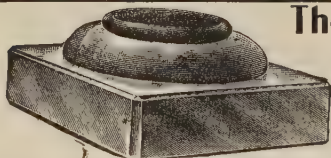
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THE COMMON WELFARE

McKEE'S ROCKS STRIKERS WIN

As this edition goes to press, a dispatch from the Pittsburgh correspondent of *THE SURVEY* states that the strike at the McKee's Rocks plant of the Pressed Steel Car Co. has been settled. The company practically agrees to the strikers' terms. These called for "a return to the 1907 wage scale which had been cut from 10 to 15% (this scale the company agrees to restore probably in sixty days); the pooling system in vogue at the beginning of the strike to be modified; minimum wages to be fixed; no collections by foremen; any man giving money to an official or any official accepting money to be discharged; insurance to be adjusted, each man having a book giving a statement of his insurance rating; no Sunday work; a new system to be adopted in employing men; the black list of 600 men who first struck to be wiped out."

The attitude of the Pittsburgh public toward this settlement is indicated by the following editorial in the Pittsburgh *Sun* of September 6:

A more trying, desperate, heartbreaking struggle than the leaders of the car works strikers are making is impossible to imagine. They have the most difficult and intractable and suspicious and disorganized sort of following; and industrial America has never seen the equal of the car works management for obstinacy and arrogance. These leaders have done wonderful work so far. To them more than to its own peace officers and precautions this community owes the smallness of the loss of life and the littleness of the disorder so far experienced. The strikers themselves deserve no small honor for their loyalty and self-control and patience under the harshest of conditions. They have gone so long and done so well that if they but stand firm, refuse to heed the counsels of the radical and the disuniting they have yet the chance of succeeding. The eyes of the whole country are on the situation here. And the car company has no defenders worthy of the name anywhere. It will unlikely ever have any imitators in its unjust dealings with its men and its insolent defiance of public opinion. To this extent those laborers who have suffered and are starving in the conflict are waging a

fight and bringing results that make the whole country their debtor, even though no advantage comes to them.

"1915" BOSTON EXPOSITION

There is something rather fine in the idea that the old Art Museum on Copley Square will be opened up this fall for a full month (November 1 to 27) for the service of future Boston. The hanging space will be given over to a new sort of display—exhibits of the "1915" Boston Exposition. This will include the city planning exhibitions shown last year in New York and Washington and a wide range of civic exhibits from all parts of the country. There will be conferences by experts, meetings of important civic and philanthropic organizations, lectures by leaders in movements in different states. But it is in its local bearings that the enterprise will have most significance. Boston will have a final exposition in 1915 of things done—of needs carefully worked out into a correlated scheme. This is more like a trade "opening"—a graphic display by the organizations of the city of what they are doing, what they want, what they think Boston can and should get. In the words of the prospectus, "Its object is to show the citizens of Boston and the surrounding places within the metropolitan area what are the present needs of the city and how those needs may be met." Every organization is asked to arrange exhibits which shall show:

What it proposes to do if it is properly supported in the next five years.

What it has done in the past.

What it is doing at present.

What is the best that has been done anywhere in the world in the line each individual organization has set itself to follow, emphasizing especially those things which the organization wants to duplicate or improve upon in Boston.

What conditions will be and what the cost in waste will be if these things are not done.

The plan of departments include:

I, The Visible City; II, Educational and Social; III, Economic; IV, Attractions.

Department IV hints at a new departure for civic exhibitions of this kind—taking over some of the methods of the world's fairs. The Boston 1915 wants to reach the man in the street with its show, and some interesting features to bring this about are to be attempted.

PHILIPPINES AROUSED AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

The anti-tuberculosis movement in the Philippine Islands has received a substantial impetus from the Legislature's action in appropriating the sum of \$20,000 for officially opening the government campaign against the disease. The work heretofore was carried on as part of general sanitation without special appropriation.

Manila is the legislative, educational, political, and social center of the Philippines and, like ancient Athens, is the fountain from which information is conveyed to the people at large. For this reason the greater part of the appropriation will be expended in this city in teaching practically the accepted methods of combating tuberculosis.

The first procedure will be to establish a night camp outside the city on the line of the street railway where the patients in the incipient stage of the disease who have to continue their employment will be received for two months' instruction in the hygienic principles applicable to their condition. They will be taught how to dispose of their sputum, how to breathe, how to exercise and, in brief, how to live so as to cure themselves and to safeguard others. Instruction will be practical and didactic. An important feature of the course will be a series of popular lectures illustrated by the magic lantern pictures, to which the public will have access.

Each of the classes, whose size will be limited by the facilities for dealing with them, will be received for two months. Thus six classes will go out every year as anti-tuberculosis enthusiasts fighting to save their own lives and to exterminate the disease from which they have suffered. In this way the tidings of prevention and cure will be carried to every barrio in the archipelago.

A dispensary will be established, mod-

elled after institutions in the United States and Germany for the treatment of a different class of cases. Nurses will visit and instruct the people in their homes to see that indigent patients are supplied with milk, eggs and other appropriate food.

In Baguio, the official health resort and summer capital of the Philippines, a thorough test will be made of the "shack" system, the nucleus of the undertaking being small houses to accommodate ten patients in the incipient stages of the malady. Baguio is the capital of Benguet Province. It has an elevation of more than 5,000 feet and a temperate and bracing climate.

BROOKLYN'S JEWISH CHARITIES TO FEDERATE

Federation is to be realized among the Jewish charities in Brooklyn, even if their neighbors in Manhattan cannot bring themselves to consent to such an arrangement. Nathan S. Jonas, president of the Citizens Trust Company of that borough, has made a personal canvass of the field and asked people to pledge in writing their moral support of a movement to unite the Jewish charities and to state without binding themselves, what the amount of their annual contributions to such a federation might be. Mr. Jonas figured that the total amount contributed to Jewish charities in 1908 was about \$60,000 paid in by about 3,500 persons. He has received pledges from 250 men for the year of 1910, to contribute \$40,000 if federation is accomplished, thus leaving only \$20,000 to be raised among 3,250 persons—assuming that there would be no further growth as to givers or amounts collectible.

Mr. Jonas expects about October 1 to force the situation and to incorporate the Federation of Jewish Charities of Brooklyn, with or without the consent of any particular society. He says: "It is plain that no individual charity can refuse to turn its collections over to the federation when organized, because if it did it would lose the support of those who have signed for a federation, which it could not afford to do."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE CONVENTION

The second biennial convention of The National Women's Trade Union League will be held in Chicago beginning Monday, September 27.

This convention differs from the interstate conferences which were held simultaneously in Chicago, New York and Boston in 1907 and 1909 in that it is a convention of delegates from the local Women's Trade Union Leagues, members at large—whether trades unionists or allies—and delegates from those trades unions affiliated with the national organization; while the interstate conferences represented visiting women trade unionists from all over the country, coming together to consider the best means of strengthening trades-unions among women.

About eighty delegates are expected from points in this country as widely separated as Boston and San Francisco, and from France, Germany, Italy and England. Miss Mary MacArthur, secretary of the British Women's Trade Union League, is coming from London and Mrs. Werner Hegemann of Munich, Germany, and Miss Agnes Herman, secretary of the *Verband Kaufmannischer Weiblicher Angestellten*, of Berlin are expected.

The headquarters will be Miss Morgan's studio, Room 825 Fine Arts Building, Chicago.

The convention will open at 8 o'clock on the evening of September 27 with a public meeting in the Y. M. C. A. Hall, 153 La Salle street. The speakers will be: Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin, the national president, who will welcome the delegates; Miss Mary MacArthur, John Fitzpatrick, president of the Chicago Federation of Labor; John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers of America and Raymond Robins.

On Tuesday evening the delegates to the convention and the members and friends of the Chicago Women's Trade Union League will visit the University of Chicago Settlement as the guests of Miss Mary McDowell, first president of

the Chicago league. There will be short addresses by the foreign delegates and the Chicago league's chorus will sing in costume.

The delegates will be taken in automobiles to inspect the city parks on September 29. On the thirtieth the Kindergarten Institute will entertain them. Mrs. A. Page and Miss Cronise will be the hostesses. There will be music and speeches.

BERKS COUNTY SOLVES A PROBLEM

Berks county, Pa., of which Reading is the county seat, seems to have solved the difficult problem of interesting every man, woman and child in the community in the prevention of tuberculosis.

The plan of raising funds now being developed in Reading and vicinity is called the "block plan." In June the Tuberculosis Aid Society of Berks County was formed. Every lodge, labor union, club, school, church, or other organized body is entitled to representation in this central society. To each of the delegates, who come from the various societies and groups above named, is assigned a certain district, for the canvassing of which he is particularly responsible. Envelopes in which money is to be placed have been left with every family in the county and on September 20, which has been set as "tuberculosis aid day," the delegates will go to the houses in their respective districts to collect them.

Meanwhile, from the headquarters of the society, though the newspapers aid in every other way, a systematic propaganda is being carried on. Meetings before the groups represented in the society are of frequent occurrence, and in every possible way conditions in the country are depicted and the aid of the people is sought.

It is expected that fully \$25,000 will be realized, which is to be used for purchasing a site and erecting a sanatorium for the free treatment of tuberculosis in Berks county.

FERRYBOATS AS SCHOOLS AND CAMPS

Two regular schools and four day camps for tuberculous children and adults are now conducted on abandoned ferryboats in New York and Brooklyn. The latest school for children was opened a few days ago on the deck of the ferryboat *Susquehanna*, anchored in the Erie Basin, and operated by the Tuberculosis Committee of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. This is the third regular open air school for children now in operation in New York, the others being located at the Bellevue Ferryboat Day Camp, and the Red Cross Day Camp on the roof of the Vanderbilt Clinic. Instruction is given to children in the other ferryboats at Jackson slip and East Ninety-first street, but no regular schools are maintained.

The percentage of children treated at these various camps ranges from about one-quarter to one-half the patients. In Brooklyn there are about 100 patients who regularly spend their days on the boat, about fifty of whom are children.

Desks are provided as in the regular schools and during the school year graded instruction is given. In the summer the main effort is to keep the children entertained, and to teach them how to live clean and hygienic lives. The Board of Education supplied teachers to the regular schools in operation last year.

Of the ferry day camps Brooklyn's has the best boat. The vessel, which was built as a "horseless ferry" experiment by the Erie Railroad, was turned over recently by the company to the Brooklyn committee. The other boats are all abandoned, worn-out and unseaworthy, but the Brooklyn ferry is ready for a cruise at any time the funds are on hand for steaming up. Since it costs about fifty dollars a day to run the boat, the committee keeps it at anchor.

The Department of Health controls the operation of the boats at Jackson Slip and East Ninety-first street, and Bellevue Hospital manages the one anchored at the foot of East Twenty-sixth street.

According to the latest figures obtainable, there are now eight schools for tu-



FERRYBOAT CAMP.
The school at play.

Photographed by the Brooklyn Eagle.

bercular children in operation throughout the United States. They are in Boston, Providence, Hartford, New York, Chicago, and Pittsburgh. Detroit is planning to have a similar school next year and probably Chicago's one institution will be increased to four.

KANSAS CITY'S SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

The Kansas City School of Social Science represents a movement started last winter by a small group of working people of Kansas City, Mo. The idea is to impart a clearer knowledge of social facts and a more scientific comprehension of the principles upon which society is conducted or should be conducted.

The meetings last winter had a semblance of organization. The leader was Mrs. Jessie M. Molle, a socialist; but as it was declared that the lectures and course of study would not be confined to any formulas or pre-accepted social dogmas, the socialist organization in Kansas City withheld support.

During the first season, of chiefly sporadic activity, no regular course of study was attempted. A few addresses were made by men of Kansas City interested in civic and reform work. A reading room was established, and some reading classes was conducted by Mrs. Molle.

With this organization as a nucleus, the Kansas City School of Social Science was incorporated this summer. The executive officers of the school as chartered are: Mrs. Jessie M. Molle, president; Dr. May Wells, vice-president; Heyman Jacobs, secretary; Joseph P. Havener, treasurer. A board of directors was chosen, composed of Frank P. Walsh, a lawyer, Henry D. Faxon, member of a wholesale business house, Dante Barton, editorial writer on the *Kansas City Star*, and Charles Sumner, secretary of the City Club of Kansas City and first vice-president of the National Stereotypers' Union. A bulletin of the school recently issued states its object in this prefatory announcement:

Believing that education is a potent factor in the understanding and solution of the

many social problems of the day, and realizing that this education can be acquired only by the few who are able to attend college where social and political science is taught, it is the aim of the school to give a broad and liberal education in such branches as to qualify its students to understand these multifarious problems of the municipality, state and nation, or other form of organized society—in other words, to prepare men and women for citizenship. We aim to keep in touch with the Missouri University course of sociology as much as we can.

The home of the school of social science is to be at 1,514 Broadway. The first term began September 7. The faculty has been largely made up from among the teachers in the public schools, and those who have been prominent in social work in Kansas City. While the aim of the school is ambitious, the school itself is still in a primary, experimental stage. Its hopes for establishing itself as a permanent and growing institution are sustained by the interest which has been manifested in it by both wage-earners and business men and by several of the civic and laboring men's organizations of Kansas City.

HOUSING QUESTION FOR WORKING WOMEN

The tenement committee of the Woman's Municipal League of New York has for a part of its program for the coming year a demonstration of model tenement houses for working women. One of the members of the committee, Miss Gertrude Barnum, has fitted up two- three- and four-room apartments at 416 East Sixty-fifth street with a view of putting the theory of the committee into practice.

In these flats, at a rent of from \$1.37 to \$2.75 a week, self-supporting women may enjoy the comforts of a complete home, with steam heat, gas ranges, stationary tubs, bathing facilities, steam laundry dryers, private lavatories and all other modern conveniences. Groups of working women are already availing themselves of these advantages and Miss Barnum is "at home" in one of these model flats every Thursday afternoon and evening, for the purpose of showing the Sixty-fifth street tenements and fur-

nishing information to wage-earning house-hunters regarding model tenements in other parts of New York.¹¹ The modern woman has the same craving for a real "home," as her old-fashioned sister, and "furnished rooms, with the light house-keeping privileges," have not met this need of her nature any more than the other makeshifts in institutional homes, woman's hotels, and so called "studios."

CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY

As a result of the National Conference on Criminal Law and Criminology held in Chicago in June, the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology was formed. The institute was organized to further the scientific study of crime, criminal law and procedure, to formulate and promote measures for solving the problems connected with these studies and to co-ordinate the efforts of individuals and of organizations interested in the administration of certain and speedy justice. Its work for the first year has been mapped out and assigned to committees and consists largely of a scientific investigation and of preparatory propaganda to be circulated among interested workers.

Two sorts of committees have been appointed—general and section. The former will have charge of measures of wider importance and the latter will see to the investigation of specific topics assigned for the next annual meeting.

Section committees with chairmen are as follows: System of Recording Data of Criminals; Edward A. Ross, Madison, Wisconsin, chairman. The object of this section is stated to be investigation of an effective system for recording the physical and moral status and the hereditary and environmental conditions of delinquents, and in particular of the persistent offender.

Sidney I. Schwab of St. Louis is chairman of the section on drugs and intoxicants, whose duty will be to "investigate the influences attached to the traffic in drugs and intoxicants as a widespread excitant to instability, in turn provocative of crime."

The section on probation, parole, pardon and indeterminate sentence, is headed by Wilfred Bolster of Boston. This section will have in charge the investigation of the most advisable methods of establishing and extending adult offenders' probation, parole, indeterminate sentence and suspended sentence, including a consideration of (1) the results of such measures as hitherto used, (2) the organization of board of pardon and of parole, and officers of probation, and (3) the correlation of such boards and officers with courts and court methods.

The section on the organization of courts is as yet without a chairman but a leader will be appointed at the meeting of the American Bar Association to be held in Detroit on August 27. The work of this committee will be the investigation of the possibilities of the unification of the state and local courts, in order to do away with the burdensome cost of transcripts, bills of exception and writs of error.

The section on criminal procedure is under the chairmanship of Roscoe Pound of Chicago. The work of this committee will be the investigation of the feasible methods of simplifying pleadings in criminal cases, and eliminating unnecessary technicalities in the procedure of appeals and reversals of judgment in criminal cases.

These four general committees with chairmen have been appointed: Joseph P. Byers, New York, translation of European treatises; William W. Smithers, Philadelphia, establishment of a journal; Adolph Meyer, Baltimore, statistics; John Koren, Boston.

THE FUNCTION OF THE CHURCH—THE FUNCTION OF THE STATE

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES

Church of the Messiah; New York

Some years ago, there was published in the *International Journal of Ethics* an article by Prof. Edward O. Sisson of the University of Washington, entitled *The State Absorbing the Func-*

tions of the Church. The thesis of Dr. Sisson's argument, as was clearly indicated by its title, was that "the modern state has for some generations been taking upon itself functions which in all earlier periods of the Christian era were performed by the church." Of these functions, he asserted, one is none other than "charity, meaning thereby all forms of material relief for poverty and destitution."

That Professor Sisson is correct in indicating that the state is fast absorbing those charitable activities, which were once the exclusive business of the church, none can deny who is at all familiar with recent social changes. There was a time when the state was utterly neglectful of the weak and the unfortunate, leaving the "lame, the halt and the blind," the poor, the sick and the aged, to the care of the church as "the universal dispenser of aid to the needy." But now all this is changed. "The church has by no means abandoned its charitable work," as Dr. Sisson rightly puts it, "but it is long since the state began to engage in the work of charity, and the total of its activity in this field already far surpasses the work of the church. . . . In the place of the doles from the monastery gate, we find the municipal agencies for relieving the destitute. The ecclesiastical almshouse has given place to the poorhouse or farm. It is a striking commentary on the new conditions that the very police station has become one of the regular channels of state relief."

Now, that this is a momentous change, all must admit; and one who is interested in the relation of church and society, and especially in the problem of efficient charitable relief, is inclined to speculate as to how far this transition is going to proceed. Is the church destined ultimately to abandon its charitable work and yield all of this part of its former activity to the state? Or will the church again assume its ancient prerogatives and re-occupy this field which was once exclusively its own? By many persons—and especially by professional social workers, I imagine—it is eagerly desired that the former result shall finally be brought about. There is a strong

impression abroad in our age that the relief work of the church is inefficient and extravagant, and therefore responsible for much more harm than good. In accordance with this idea, it is believed that the only real solution of the charity question is to place all relief work in the hands of the state or of such public agencies as our modern Associated Charities, and confine the church to its proper function of "the cure of souls." I remember distinctly, while working on an organized charity board in Massachusetts, the indignation manifested by my associates one Thanksgiving season, when it was discovered that the churches of the town had entered upon a very lavish distribution of turkeys and had bestowed anywhere from two to five or six of the festive birds upon certain families which had been clever and unscrupulous enough to gain membership in more than one church or Sunday School. "This is a crime!" exclaimed our chairman, with rising wrath. "If the churches would only mind their own business and leave this charity work wholly in the hands of those appointed to do it, such a scandal as this would be impossible."

It may well be doubted, however, in spite of the confessed inefficiency of the church and the admitted efficiency of the state in the work of charity relief, if the church will ever wholly surrender this particular function. "The world cannot afford to have it do so," says Professor Sisson, with perfect justice. The ideal conditions of affairs, to my mind, would be to have a church so well organized and efficiently officered that it could once again assume its formerly exclusive prerogatives and relieve the state and other public agencies of all of their charitable activities. Dr. Edward Everett Hale has well said that every church in a particular city or town, regardless of sectarian distinctions, should be placed in charge of a certain specified district and made legally responsible for the material and moral and spiritual health of that district. This is of course to-day an impracticable ideal. Our churches are not yet organized and officered for scientific charity relief—many

of them have not the financial means to assume the burden—denominational differences are still a serious obstacle to constructive social activity—worst of all, the majority of our churches have not yet learned the lesson of “applied religion,”—religion applied, that is, to our own street as well as to an African village or a Chinese seaport. To ask our churches to-day, therefore, to assume the labors of our organized charities and municipal relief agencies, would be disastrous. Indeed, we may say, with perfect justice, that these latter agencies have sprung up, as a part of our state or municipal business, very largely because of the patent and scandalous inefficiency of the churches.

Nevertheless, Dr. Hale’s conception may be described as an ideal toward which society may well direct its movements. And meanwhile, the church and state may well effect a fair and safe division of charitable labor. I believe that every church should have some such clearly defined policy, in this regard, as the following: (a) Every church should hold itself responsible for the material condition of every family and individual within its membership. No church should allow any one of its people to become a burden upon the community or a problem for the outside philanthropic organizations. Each church, in a word, should have among its official boards a benevolent society, the members of which should distribute funds, donate clothing, food, fuel and medicines, secure employment, medical attendance, summer outings, etc., for those among their own people who are poor, unfortunate, or in any way dependent. (b) Each church, within the measure of its ability, should conduct a parish house, or settlement house, or church house—the name is immaterial—which may serve as a place of refuge and a center of entertainment and uplift, to those in its community who are in need of such a place. Gymnasiums and game rooms, libraries and reading rooms, study classes and public lectures, literary and musical entertainments, clubs for individual culture and social service, all these should find place in such a house, which would thus serve

as the recognized home of every good movement and every uplifting influence in the community. (c) And third, the church should work in heartiest co-operation with the organized charities and other outside philanthropic agencies of its city or town. It should inform these organizations of what it is doing for the help of its own people, and thus avoid possible duplication. It should support these organizations liberally with money and with workers. But above all it should seek so to establish its own efficiency that the civic relief agencies could co-operate with it upon an equal footing of respect and understanding. I know of one church, for instance, in New York state, which has so organized itself under the leadership of an efficient and inspired pastor, that it, as a church, has been constituted the “organized charity” of its community.

As regards the present relation between church and state, in the work of charity, the word is co-operation. For the state, there is need, along with method and system, of a clear recognition that the work of charity is essentially religious work, and belongs properly to a religious organization. For the church, along with a clear understanding of the meaning of religion as service applied to human need, there is need of organized scientific efficiency, so that the church may prove itself competent to assume once again the task of charity (or love, as it is better phrased), which was once rightly its appointed work, and which it lost only because of inefficiency, sectarian strife, and mistaken spiritual ideals.

THE CAUSES OF POVERTY¹

Reviewed by C. C. CARSTENS

Boston

There is no more interesting study in economics or in social ethics than that which seeks to determine what physical and intellectual reasons lie at the foundation of human poverty. Theology and economics have had their turn

¹The Causes of Poverty, by Callaghan McCarthy, B. A. London, P. S. King and Son. Pp. 110. Price 2 shillings. This book may be obtained at publisher’s price through THE SURVEY.

at pointing to a solution. Fate, over-population and inherent weakness have all had their day as satisfactory explanations of human misery. More lately the emphasis has come to rest on social maladjustment as the controlling cause and with it has come the hope of finding the way out of the slough of poverty. While *The Causes of Poverty* by Callaghan McCarthy does not contradict the latter theory, the emphasis seems to lie upon physiographic as well as social causes looked at from a national standpoint.

The author leads the reader first of all to get a detailed panoramic picture of the earth's phenomena, classifying the elements that contribute to the well-being of humanity into services of its members, those of nature about and above us and those of property lying about and beneath us. He finds three causes of poverty: First, the obstructions at the source of services due to conditions such as war, unnecessary idleness, premature destruction of human powers, deficiencies of nature, and mismanagement of public and private property; second, the necessary preparations for the prevention of evil, such as military and naval forces, police and prison officials, mining, factory and sanitary inspectors, lawyers and legislators and all others who may be publicly or privately concerned in preventing injury to themselves and others; and third, the demand of unproductive consumers, proceeding from excessive quantities or qualities of such factors as food, drink, clothing, furniture, travelling comforts and sporting requirements.

It is not strange that a professor in an Irish university should have been impressed with the demand for goods in excessive quantities or qualities of absentee landlords and other unproductive consumers. There is also enough precedent for considering police, legislator and factory inspector as sources of loss, but unless the author wishes us to believe altogether in a sort of Garden of Eden theory of production, he certainly has failed to point out with sufficient clearness when comfort, recreation and sport and sanitary inspectors, police and other governmental agencies become ac-

tive factors in the production of wealth.

He estimates the annual income of the United Kingdom at 1,750 million pounds, of which 264 million pounds are embodied in the more permanent forms of property; namely, they are invested. Of the balance, seventy-five million pounds are directed toward the prevention of evil and 500 million pounds are directed toward unproductive consumption, making together two-fifths of the amount annually consumed. The balance of 911 million pounds, or three-fifths of the amount consumed, he estimates to have been used profitably.

Even if, as previously pointed out, the proportion of unproductively consumed income has been overstated, Mr. McCarthy has written an interesting and suggestive study of poverty looked at from the standpoint of the nation as a whole.

SOCIALISM IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT¹

Reviewed by HOWARD WOOLSTON

A man with a message may be a prophet, an advocate, or merely biased. Mr. Towler, secretary of the London Municipal Society, raises the alarm against municipal socialism, which, he declares, is one of the most insidious evils of the day. Its Fabian policy is proceeding to capture the administration of English cities, one department after another, until the whole fabric of the state is undermined for springing the communistic scheme. This movement, the author explains, is both morally dangerous and financially unprofitable. The latter aspect he engages to demonstrate with a wealth of statistics.

Briefly summarized, the point of view is that opposed to municipal trading. Successive chapters of the book treat of the development of monopoly under state and local government. From such experience the conclusion is drawn that the price and quality of municipal service show no advantage to the consumer as

¹*Socialism in Local Government*, by W. G. Towler, New York. Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 336; price \$1.50. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through THE SURVEY.

compared with private enterprise. Moreover, through bad management such operations increase the taxes, and tend to build up a dangerous ring of petty officials who resist improvements.

From the moral standpoint Mr. Towler argues that the effect of such public action is to diminish individual initiative and to weaken the sense of personal responsibility. He proceeds to point out how a liberal policy of outdoor aid and of supplying work for the unemployed leads to idleness and demoralization. He regards the extension of the functions of the school in feeding children and giving them medical attention as equally dangerous.

In place of enlarging the scope of municipal action, the author proposes a policy of government regulation. He indicates as the proper basis for legislation, the provisions of recent German franchises, whereby large private corporations are made to contribute of their profits to the public treasury. Such measures are held to be most advantageous for the taxpayers.

It may be fairly questioned, however, whether the economic gain of municipal undertakings is the main consideration. Mr. Towler admits that in the event of failure on the part of private enterprise to supply a public need, the local authorities may undertake the service. It may be said that American cities have usually proceeded upon this basis. The more progressive ones have also assumed functions that seem generally useful but not productive of large money returns, such as the provision for parks and playgrounds. This course seems to indicate the principle that the well-being of the citizens may outweigh mere financial profit, and that the wealth of a community may be justly taxed to promote the general welfare. The increase of national efficiency through saving children from a life sapped by disease, is not easily set off against the cost of medical inspection and the clearing of congested areas. Nor can the loss of excise duties be accurately balanced by figures showing an increased steadiness in labor. Yet such items also enter into the accounts of nations.

The argument against municipal man-

agement as put, is not conclusive when taken in connection with that for government regulation. On the one hand it is stated that the city cannot secure the services of men competent to direct its business enterprises. On the other hand it is asserted that these same public servants (sometimes men of affairs) are able to frame wise measures for controlling the operation of private corporations. This is somewhat the dilemma of certain Central American armies, where there are many superior generals, but few good captains. The only solution lies in reorganizing the service.

A second inconsistency is found in the contention that municipal trading builds up a bureaucracy, while at the same time it exposes the business to the vicissitudes of popular whims. Mr. Towler does not explain how private monopoly avoids autocracy in its organization, nor how competitive business steers clear of public opinion.

A final objection to the method of reasoning employed may be illustrated by our author's presumption that active participation in the business of the community renders its citizens dependent, whereas the absence of such participation preserves their self-reliance and initiative. Just how political power involves economic subordination, or why the "industrial freedom" of present-day workers gives them civic control, is not made plain. Mr. Towler evidently regards the administration as a closed corporation with ill-defined responsibilities to the community at large. Now, though it may be admitted that political distinctions between the ins and the outs persist, it is not true that the government is fundamentally anything more than the organized expression of the will of the people. It is obvious that the entire city is the corporation here in question, and that the struggle is now on to determine what body of citizen shareholders shall influence the votes of the councilmen-directors.

To sum up, we may say that Mr. Towler's data show municipal trading to be less profitable than its friends had hoped it would prove. The general strictures upon socialism indicate further issues for debate and demonstration.

THE SOLVAY INSTITUTE OF SOCIOLOGY, BRUSSELS

D. WARNOTTE

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH BY MAY LANGDON WHITE

The Solvay Institute of Sociology, founded in 1901 in Brussels, is located on Leopold Park, one of the quietest and most picturesque avenues of the city. It stands between the Institutes of Anatomy and of Physiology, which owe their existence to the same founder. Leopold Park contains several other scientific institutions, but it was not by chance that the Institute of Sociology was placed in close proximity to laboratories devoted to the medical and natural sciences.

"Ernest Solvay wished it thus, notwithstanding the surprise of the specialists in physiology and anatomy, when the institute was being constructed, at seeing the sociologists, who had more literary than scientific renown, installed so near them. He intended by this means to express in visible form the synthesis of their conceptions, and he associated the buildings in order to proclaim the affiliation of their ideas."¹

The founder of the Institute of Sociology explained his intention in a letter addressed, in 1901, to the communal government of Brussels, of which the principal passages are as follows:

"Economic and social problems dominate current thought. Recent years have seen writings and investigations multiply in this field, long abandoned to the conjectures of empiricism and to the arbitrary conclusions of individual speculations.

"I myself have attempted to give to these efforts, frequently devoid of coordination, a positive basis, by striving to connect fundamentally the economic factors preponderant in the evolution of peoples with the physiological and physical factors that govern man and nature.

"With a view to pursuing the studies to which I have applied myself, and to furnishing all investigators with the

means of contributing to the advancement of the social sciences, I intend to create in Brussels an Institute of Sociology. . . . This grouping of institutions will make possible the increasing application to the social sciences of the methods of investigation and instruction that have produced such brilliant results in the fields of physiology and biology."

The institute cannot be better defined, therefore, than by saying that it constitutes a laboratory for social research.

On the ground floor of the institute is a central hall about which are study rooms designed for the workers. Cabinets devoted to various sciences occupy two floors. The basement contains collections of periodicals and various documents, notably 5,000 pamphlets.

The library is chiefly contained in the central hall above mentioned, which serves not only as a storehouse for books, but also as a reading and reference room.

Speaking generally, the library consists mainly of works that contain material important for students of social problems. It contains, in actual figures, about 17,000 books and 5,000 separate volumes of periodicals published prior to 1903. It subscribes, also, to 300 reviews and journals.

The institute comprises besides, as has been mentioned, various cabinets containing special scientific collections.

I. The History Cabinet.—In the main hall of the history cabinet are found books, documents, collections, etc., in the nature of sources for the social history of Belgium. The "sources" relate especially to the history of Belgium from the Middle Ages to the year 1800.

II. The Statistical Cabinet.—This cabinet contains albums of statistical material. Diagrams and other graphic documents are shown on panels. In addition, instruments and materials of statis-

¹ Waxweiler: *La Vie dans les Phenomenes Sociaux*, p. 2.

tical technique (adding machines, accountants' instruments, cards, etc.) are at the disposal of workers admitted to the institute by authority of the director.

III. The Cabinet of Technology.—The collections in this cabinet are composed of various documents, photographs, etc., that are of value in tracing the influence of the technical factor in social evolution.

IV. The Cabinet of Anthropology.—The collections united in the cabinet of anthropology comprise more particularly a craniological series illustrating the principal human types; about five hundred skulls and casts; photographs, charts, and publications relating especially to Belgian anthropology, specimens of prehistoric instruments, and an ethnographical collection relating to the primitive industries of the Belgian Congo.

It should be stated that the different cabinets do not pretend to be museums. Each contains nothing more than a selection of models designed to facilitate the scientific work of the establishment, that may be called,—by analogy with books of reference,—models of reference. The principal anthropological types, the chief results of human activity in the domains of historic literature, of geographical expansion, of economic development, and of social organization, have been assembled with the object, first, of calling to mind by their constant presence the great discoveries and the main scientific principles in the fields of ethnography, psychology, and the social sciences; second, by their proximity, of bringing investigators whose work is specialized in touch with the general currents of scientific culture, the comprehension of which is indispensable to sociologists. The mere superficial examination of the five hundred skulls assembled in the cabinet teaches the amateur investigator more than extensive reading in treatises on craniometry. In the same way, the photographs of domestic industries contrasted with the views of great industries in the cabinet of technology, cannot fail to arouse reflection in one who knows political economy only through textbooks.

The internal activities of the institute consist, of course, of investigations along social lines, which are carried on by the collaborators and independent investigators.

I. Continuous Investigations.—The continuous, or "permanent" investigations, are conducted by the staff, which is composed of the director, E. Waxweiler, the science collaborators, and an assistant. At the beginning of each academic year, the director and the collaborators meet for the purpose of arranging the programme of investigations that are to be undertaken, or in some cases continued, in the course of the year. Similar meetings are held periodically, at least trimonthly, to inquire into the progress of the investigations. Other persons working in the institute may, by general consent, take part in the conferences.

The director may, on his own initiative, or at the request of a collaborator, commission specialists to undertake investigations on a chosen subject. Such investigations are conducted by these specialists in conjunction with the director or the collaborator who proposed them.

II. Independent Investigations.—The institute is open to persons desirous of carrying on sociological research. Absolute scientific independence is guaranteed them. In order to be admitted to carry on research work at the institute, it is necessary to have evidence of scientific attainment (original works, diplomas, etc.) attesting extensive knowledge of sociological subjects, and to pursue a line of study having a definite object. There is placed at the disposal of persons admitted either a special study room or a desk in the common study.

III. Analysis of Scientific Publications.—Scientific works published in Belgium and elsewhere are analyzed at the institute, in so far as they present a scientific interest. Critical examination of the publications is assured by the scientific staff, and by specialists upon whom the director may call. The examination covers books purchased or sent for exchange, and periodicals received, as well as the principal periodicals not on the shelves of the institute that may offer a sociological interest. The reviewers



THE SOLVAY INSTITUTE OF SOCIOLOGY.

form themselves into groups following certain special lines of study.

In this way also, besides the regular analysis of books and periodicals acquired by the institute and classified in its collections, a bibliographical catalog of sociological literature is formed, which covers more than 800 periodicals, and includes year-books, government reports, works of learned societies, and so forth, as well as all works appearing in book or pamphlet form that are announced in the bibliographical collections of all countries, in reviews or in the copious bibliographical references of important works or documents. The catalog constitutes at once a list of all the material found in the establishment and an index of all sociological literature published since 1903. The cards relating to works and articles which are not found at the institute are differentiated simply by a line at the top of the card. These form about a tenth of the catalog.

The publications of the Solvay Institute comprise three series:

1. *Notes et Mémoires*, which include the sociological works distinguished for extensiveness or originality of research.

2. *Etudes Sociales*, which relate more particularly to investigations and research in matters of special interest to the intellectual classes, among the great currents of thought on the social policy.

3. *Actualités Sociales*, which are not only popular studies on questions of the day, but, as Mr. Waxweiler explains in a preface repeated at the opening of each volume: "They are more than that. If, indeed, popularization be useful, surely in a time when a sort of dilettanteism seems too often to forbid definiteness of attitude and clearness of opinion, it is the more profitable to direct social studies toward a common end, and to co-ordinate their teachings.

"It is this that has been attempted in the *Actualités Sociales*. The endeavor has been made to trace out the particular aspect of things that the founder of the Institute of Sociology by an expressive neologism has termed '*productiviste*.' To search out among diverse solutions those which assure to human activity the maximum return; to trace

the factors that restrict the productivity of groups or of individuals, in order to discover the means to its reasonable increase: these will be the principal objects pursued."

In his *Note sur des formules d'introduction à l'Energétique physio-et psychosociologique* (1906), Ernest Solvay, the founder of the institute, has striven to formulate the fundamental conclusions to which he had been led, and to show, as has previously been said, the close bonds which, in his opinion, unite social and biological phenomena.

Both emanate from universal energy. To construct a positive sociology amounts then to relating the study of social groups to the subject of energy, which today dominates all the natural sciences. Now, the life of an isolated individual manifests itself on one side by a physiological and on the other by a psychological expression of organic (*i. e.*, physico-chemical) reactions, of which he is the seat. Mr. Solvay condenses this double expression into two mathematical formulas.

Then he considers the modifications to which it is necessary to submit these formulas in order to adapt them to the case of an individual living in society. The author states in this connection that, as one should not consider a society simply a sum total of individuals, so the energy of a group is not the mere sum of the utilizable individual energies of the men who compose it. He observes also that in formulas fixing the energy values of society, the productive intellectual capacity of each individual interposes a very important limit in measuring the social value of the results of brain work.

In concluding this exposition of general principles, Mr. Solvay makes clear that the energy conception of society and the system of mathematical formulas derived from it, indicate the great directions of human progress.

E. Waxweiler, the director of the institute, on his side has expounded, in the second number of the *Notes et Mémoires* entitled *Esquisse d'une Sociologie* (1906), the ideas which have come to guide him in his researches, and to direct the institute into original paths.



THE SOLVAY INSTITUTE OF SOCIOLOGY (FRONT VIEW).

The author's object is not to arouse new controversy on the various sociological theories. Abandoning these usually fruitless discussions, he has endeavored rather to give to sociological research a positive basis, *i. e.*, a basis in experiment.

As he says in his preface: "Sociology does not advance. Although the modern technique of observation and experimentation has given new life to all the sciences, she alone remains bound, retarded in her flight by a hundred various bonds which in her struggles she cannot succeed in breaking.

"Wherever the subject is discussed, in the chairs where they attempt to teach it, in books and periodicals devoted to it, they occupy themselves less in enriching it with ideas and analyses, than in merely finding its scope and field. It seems as if they strive to avoid a questioning attitude. Popular rather than scientific language is used: there are more 'sociologues' in any group of educated persons than there are 'sociologists' in the entire elite of men of science.

"Inasmuch as there is nowhere any agreement as to sociological viewpoint (I say nothing regarding an answer to that puerile question 'What is sociology?') everyone in good faith thinks that he has it. And sociology, from being nothing, appears to be everything."

Now, to permit of fruitful investigations, a science should have at least its own particular point of view. It is this viewpoint that the author wishes to determine, and he accomplishes it by relying exclusively upon the facts of observation and experience.

From these facts the conclusion is drawn that there is a place today for a new science of life, which shall study, among creatures endowed with special aptitudes determined by physical sensibility, and particularly among men, the phenomena to which the reactions of individuals upon one another give rise. Defined, that science will be a social physiology, or more precisely, a social ethology, in the sense in which the term "ethology" is recognized by naturalists.

If this be true, how will such a science be framed? In what manner will it throw upon social phenomena the light

that they have awaited in vain since August Comte gave sociology its name? In short, has such a science any chance of being sociology itself?

It is to suggest answers to this last question that Mr. Waxweiler's work is devoted.

Sociology at the Solvay Institute has then for its chief aim the study of the reactions that individual produces upon individual, among men living in society. The science that it deals with is a science of life. It studies not so much social institutions as the processes that gave them birth or that tend to modify them, either in their structure or in their activities. It intends no longer to subordinate individuals to institutions and to elevate the latter above men as if independent of them. On the contrary, by the constant application that it makes of social psychology it follows in spirit the stimulations and reactions that arise from the fact of co-existence in an organized group, and then seeks to analyze these phenomena in their physiological, biological, and physico-chemical elements. This novel tendency of the work of the institute will be easily comprehended by those who, in the United States, have followed the work of such scholars as Loeb, Jennings, Gulick, Yerkes, and Hall. It is for the purposes of such study that on the tables of the reading room of the institute, such periodicals as the *American Journal of Psychology* and the *Pedagogical Seminary* are found side by side with the *Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology*, the *Psychological Clinic*, the *Folia Neurobiologica*, the *American Journal of Sociology*, etc. The very proximity of the scientific organs corresponds to the close relationship of the ideas which the originators of the institute wish to develop in new directions.

Several important works are now in course of preparation. Some are already in press. An extensive investigation into human labor in industry will occupy two numbers of the *Notes et Mémoires*. The first will be devoted to the results of an extensive investigation into diet, already completed. The inquiry reached more than 1,065 Belgian workmen and result-

ed from the profitable collaboration of two of the Solvay institutes: Sociology (E. Waxweiler) and Physiology (Dr. A. Slosse). The second volume is devoted to an *Enquête sur la Sélection des Aptitudes au Travail Mécanique*, by E. Waxweiler, with the collaboration of G. De Leener, J. Joteyko, P. Menzerath and G. Paquot. This investigation was carried on in an unusually well equipped and organized Belgian factory.

"I asked myself," said Mr. Waxweiler, "this question: Among people brought up in the country, how is a selection made of workers fit to handle highly perfected American machinery? What is the mechanism of the social choice? To remove all indefiniteness from the study I conceived the idea of making kinemotographs of the principal workers at their tasks, in a way to determine the nature of their service from the standpoint of their adaptation to technical occupation."

The eleventh number of the *Notes et Mémoires* will be at the same time the first volume of a "collection of materials for use in the study of the social organization," published by E. Waxweiler with the aid of several collaborators, under the title of "Synergia." This collection is to include materials of all kinds, notes, observations, abstracts, interpretations, expositions of new ideas, useful for the

purpose indicated in the title, and distinguished for their brevity of presentation. Making no pretense at style, and containing only the quintessence of an observation or an idea, each of these contributions is intended to serve either in the preparation of more extended work or in the discussion of new problems or of old problems based on new grounds. The publication of the first volume is announced for this year.

The laboratory for scientific research of the Solvay Institute is freely opened to investigators of all nations. Many have come there to pursue special phases of their studies, or to secure from its rich documentary store, material for further studies. Some have even collaborated in the work of the institute by original research. It thus came about that M. Somlo, professor at the University of Clausenburg, Hungary, published there a study on the distribution of wealth in primitive societies (*Der Güterverkehr in der Urgesellschaft*). The institute endeavors also to furnish information to all who may apply to it, on any subject of scientific interest. It expects in this way to become an international center of information and research in matters relating to the science of sociology.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The advanced report of the department of prisons, New South Wales, written by the controller general, Frederick W. Neitenstein, shows a comprehensive scheme of reorganization upon the reformatory principle in active progress. Mr. Neitenstein says that New South Wales is the first country to adopt, for habitual criminals, the complete indeterminate sentence plan, without maximum or minimum restrictions, and that New Zealand, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania have followed with similar action. The prisons of the country and the prisoners of each prison are graded. A great majority of all prisoners paroled, and ninety per cent of the juveniles turned out satisfactorily, according to the report.

The "Shaftsbury House," a sort of half way house of freedom, has been established; the probation principle is commended; and so is the inebriate act through which the judges may extend the time of detention of incorrigibles beyond the sentence first im-

posed. Of 52,000 committed for default of fines, seventy-two per cent were sentenced for less than one month. Notwithstanding the great increase in the general population of New South Wales, the number of prisoners has decreased from one prisoner to every 385 inhabitants to one to 1,070. Thirteen large prisons were closed in 1908 and other smaller prisons will be closed shortly, 158 officers are dispensed with. The state supply system of prison labor is in vogue and trades are taught to prisoners by skilled instructors. Schools for prisoners are maintained; lights are supplied to every cell, and for the younger prisoners much attention is given to the physical improvement as a basis of reformatory measures. Mr. Neitenstein says weakness rather than waywardness is the source of crime. He extols the reformatory system because of its economic value. Fifty-nine per cent of the prisoners were from outside the commonwealth.

* * *

The tuberculosis committee secretary will turn with relief to a catalog of Necessaries for the Outfitting and Maintenance of Tuberculosis Exhibitions just issued by the Educational Exhibition Co., 70 Waterman street, Providence, R. I. Gardner T. Swarts, junior, whose idea it is to assemble the material needed for exhibits in one place, has had an intimate experience with exhibitions. An engineer by profession, and the son of the secretary of the Rhode Island State Board of Health, he attended the International Congress on Tuberculosis in Washington, and later spent some weeks with the same exhibition in New York. With this training and experience he is prepared to supply all the contrivances that have proven successful in catching and holding the interest of the crowds that are attracted to such a show, and moreover is prepared to offer expert advice to anyone desiring to make use of the exhibit in any social propaganda. It is a relief to find the mere mechanics of hanging pictures and crating them for shipment reduced to simple and understandable terms. No secretary of a charitable or social organization who is called upon from time to time to present his work to the public can afford to neglect this interesting and instructive catalog which may be had free on application.

* * *

From Wynberg, Cape Colony, comes a communication written by the secretary of the Cape Peninsula Charity Organisation, outlining resolutions adopted for the treatment of vagrants. The action was taken as a result of printed material sent from this country and S. L. Couper, secretary, writes, "It is quite a recognized fact that America takes the lead in right methods in dealing with questions of the common welfare." And in the same paragraph, "We find that THE SURVEY is an invaluable aid in our work." The resolutions adopted follow:

"That, whereas the need exists in this colony for reform in the treatment of criminals and vagrants, and also for some means by which the growth of pauperism will be prevented,—it is desirable that the C. P. C. O. as part of the legitimate work, should take up the consideration of (1) the Probation system for the treatment of criminal offenders, (2) the establishment of Labour Colonies, and (3) such means as will prevent the pauperism of the poorer classes; with a view to obtaining the introduction of legislation on these points, and further that for this purpose a sub-committee of this organisation be appointed."

COMMUNICATIONS

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK

TO THE EDITOR:

My attention has been called to several misleading statements and unfair conclusions contained in your issue of August 7, in an article entitled A Plea for Vocational Training.

Had Miss Flexner communicated with me the same courtesy would have been extended to her as was accorded in the public schools through a letter from the city superintendent. She could have obtained the address of the superintendent of Catholic schools from any one of the parochial school principals she visited.

It is misleading and illogical to argue from the failure to answer her verbal or written queries—made without proper credentials from the Catholic School Board—"An indifference to the problem" in question (namely the causes of children leaving school before graduation) just as it is flagrantly unjust to conclude, as Miss Flexner does, from one solitary case, that there is in all the sixty-two Catholic schools of Manhattan "a total absence of records."

All the records, required by law, are strictly and accurately kept in our schools. I know this from actual personal examination of all records, every year for the past six years, so that I venture to say that the solitary principal, who declared that he had no records, must have misunderstood his questioner.

It was not indifference to the problem in question that deprived Miss Flexner of the information sought, but rather a well grounded conviction that fair treatment is never given to our schools in such investigations. As a case in point, I am just now spending valuable time, that might be devoted to real constructive work for the benefit of the children of our city, in refuting the careless, unjust, sweeping assertions of a misinformed settlement worker. The report I refer to was so misleading that the one to whom it was submitted hesitated about printing it until advice could be obtained.

Miss Flexner's article is another illustration of what causes the reluctance on our part to permit unauthorized investigations of our schools or their records, unless we have an absolute guarantee of impartial treatment. "The area covered" as she says "was the Borough of Manhattan and the schools represented (in records obtained from the Board of Health) are 100 public and thirty-one parochial." (In the proportion of about three to one.) She goes on to state that "of the 406 children who left school it is distressing to note" that thirty left from grade 5A and lower; and that nine of these came from parochial schools. The other twenty-one cases came from public schools and the proportion is still about three to one. In other words, of the 131 schools concerned in this article seventy-five

per cent were public and twenty-five per cent parochial, and, on the other hand, of the thirty cases mentioned seventy-five per cent came from the public and twenty-five per cent from the parochial schools. Yet Miss Flexner goes into details about the alleged violations in the parochial schools and says absolutely nothing about those in the public. It is this unfair discrimination that we protest against, and it is all the more unjust because Miss Flexner ought to know that all the machinery for enforcing the laws relating to child labor—the factory inspector, the attendance officers and the Board of Health—are outside the control and influence of the parochial school.

We have no desire to see exploited the failure of the public schools in regard to these twenty-two cases. We believe that their officials as well as our own are gradually coping with and mastering a situation beset with difficulties. We believe that it is unfair, considering the serious difficulties involved, to consider these cases otherwise than exceptional and complimentary in their fewness both to the public and parochial schools. We see no reason why the parochial schools should be thus named in print to the exclusion of other schools, which justly or unjustly, are accused of having a proportionately equal number of cases.

It is not fair to insinuate, as Miss Flexner does from one isolated case, that "in view of the compulsory education law flagrant violations of the law by parents and children are comparatively easy." The Catholic schools help to enforce this law, to say the least, just as well as other schools; their records are well kept and up to date; they co-operated with the attendance officers in 1908 to the extent of sending 9,627 cases for investigation from the 157 schools in Greater New York (Tenth Annual Report of the Public Schools, p. 367), and the fact that during the year 1908 the regents of the state of New York gave 12,315 counts to their pupils, in over sixteen subjects (many of these with "honor"), shows that they are more than adequately fulfilling the primary purpose of the law, which is not entirely the keeping of a child in school to a certain age, but also the filling him with the knowledge of at least the six necessary branches for success and enjoyment in life.

We have nothing to conceal about our schools, nothing to be ashamed of. We are going on building new schools—(about ten new ones will be opened in the greater city in September) replacing old ones and perfecting our education in every way. Friendly co-operation is what is needed among all schools and among all workers interested in the welfare of the children of our great and complex city, and nothing will hinder and thwart the work more insidiously than one-sided and harassing criticism.

In view of the two misleading reports that I have at hand, one could hardly blame the Catholic School Board, if, at its next meeting, it were to resolve to exclude all inves-

tigators from its schools, unless accompanied by credentials from competent authority.

JOSEPH F. SMITH,
Superintendent New York Catholic School Board.

CHILD LABOR, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

TO THE EDITOR:

I noticed in your issue of THE SURVEY for August 7, 1909, the following statement in an article on Child Labor in the District of Columbia:

"Two hundred and ninety-three business places are said to be employing 444 children under sixteen years of age. In addition to these, twenty newsboys and street vendors have received permits and badges."

This article refers especially to the conditions during the month of June, 1909, and there is an error in the figures given. During that month fifty-eight permits and badges were issued to newsboys and street vendors and 135 certificates issued for inside employment of children under sixteen years of age. There are 1,833 authorized newsboys and street vendors holding permits and badges and approximately 1,500 are selling without the permits and badges. Owing to the fact that we have only two inspectors to cover the entire District of Columbia it is very difficult to reach all these boys, but we hope to have control of the situation before the end of this fiscal year. There have been 4,324 certificates issued,—1,833 of which are covered by the newsboys and street vendors and 2,491 are issued for inside work. When the law went into effect there were 266 business places employing child labor and 1,221 children employed. The larger department stores have nearly abolished the employment of child labor, retaining only those children who have nearly reached the age of sixteen years.

For your information I give below a statement of the cases considered by this office during the month of July, 1909. I regret that it is impossible to give this statement for the month of June, 1909, but no clerical help was given for the enforcement of this law until July 1, 1909.

Number of age and schooling certificates issued	204
Number of age certificates recommended to the Juvenile Court for approval...	8
Number of cases referred to the Juvenile Court	5
Number of cases referred to the Board of Children's Guardians	3
Number of cases referred to the commissioners of the District of Columbia	2
Number of children disqualified, under age	79
Number of children disqualified, physically	6
Number of children disqualified, mentally	11
Number of children disqualified, no proof of age	3

Number of children disqualified, wards of the Board of Children's Guardians and at the request of this board.....	1
Number of permits and badges issued to newsboys and street venders.....	116
Number of duplicate permits and badges issued to newsboys and street venders	61
Number of cases pending.....	97
Number of cases investigated, special..	17
Number of records of births examined, special examination of official records..	13
Number of special physical examinations	11

RAYMOND O. WILMARTH.

Department Child Labor, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Tuberculosis Schools in Chicago and Hartford.—Chicago and Hartford have recently established open-air schools for tuberculous and pre-tuberculous children. During the summer a school of this character will be conducted in Chicago at the Lloyd Elementary School. Accommodations for thirty children will be provided. The Chicago Tuberculosis Institute will co-operate with the Board of Education in maintaining it, particularly in the feeding of the children. If the experiment is successful a complete plan for four open-air schools may be worked out. At Hartford an outdoor school will be maintained by a

private association in one of the city parks. The methods employed at these two schools are similar to those practiced in Providence, Boston, New York and Pittsburgh, where schools of a similar nature are maintained.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

Announcement is made of the results of the first three months' work of the National Employment Exchange. Not the least timely feature of the report is the statement that among the class of labor dealt with to date, there has been an increase in wages during those three months averaging fifteen cents a day; and, in sharp contrast to the situation at the beginning of the period, it is to-day difficult to get enough men to fill the orders.

The report is written by Otto T. Bannard, president of the New York Trust Company, and president of the exchange. The enterprise has many unique features and its operations are being watched with interest by economists and business men throughout the country. It gives promise of duplicating the remarkable success of the City and Suburban Homes Company and the Provident Loan Society, which it strongly resembles in its semi-philanthropic organization and its sound business management. The exchange was instituted last winter following investigations made by Edward T. Devine into state, philanthropic and commercial employment exchanges throughout the country, and the need for the systematic distribution of labor. Mr. Bannard's report reads:

The National Employment Exchange, incorporated under the laws of the state of New York under the leadership of Jacob H. Schiff and the Russell Sage Foundation, with Robert W. de Forest's guidance, opened its first office for manual labor at 14 State street on Battery Park, New York city, about the middle of March, 1909, with \$100,000 subscriptions paid in. For the first three active months, June, July and August, the manager, Edward W. Carpenter, reports that up to August 31 he had obtained work for 718 men who accepted employment, a result which compares favorably with the first six months of the United States Government

Employment Agency in New York city. At the outset, labor was so abundant that fees could not be exacted from the employers, but during this short time a complete reversal of the situation has occurred. To-day, it is difficult to fill the orders for men, and any able-bodied laborers can be placed readily. Hereafter, employers will be charged for each man accepted. No registration fee has been exacted from anyone at this office. Wages have advanced about fifteen cents a day during the period in question, and it is an interesting fact that men prefer the longer hours with private employers at the larger daily compensation than employment for eight hours on state contracts at the wages per hour which yield a trifle less per day. For example, there are instances where men prefer to work ten hours at \$1.50 per day, rather than eight hours on the canal work at eighteen cents an hour or \$1.44 per day. The business of this exchange is now extending to skilled laborers for which many orders are being received. Our experience has been disappointing in the number of men professing to want work, and failing at the last moment to report for duty. In some cases we have lost small sums advanced for provisions and railroad fares, and many continue at the employment obtained by us and neglect to remit to us our small fee. Nevertheless, although far from self-supporting at the outset, as was to be expected, we are content with having been helpful to many men and having already learned some of the vagaries of this new occupation, new so far as we are concerned. We are obtaining the confidence of employers and men, and honest dealing and business methods will establish our name in time.

Of the total of 718 actually supplied and accepted, 537 were day laborers, forty-six carpenters' helpers, and ninety-three skilled and unskilled mechanics, watchmen and miscellaneous workmen. As to nationalities, 320 of the 718 were Poles, sixty-three were Russians and sixty Swedes.

The trustees are Otto T. Bannard, George Blumenthal, Frederick G. Bourne, Robert W. de Forest, Francis L. Hine, V. Everit Macy, John R. MacArthur, Jacob H. Schiff and Paul M. Warburg. At the meeting of the board held September 13, 1909, a sub-committee was appointed to consider the opening of a general bureau uptown.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE CONFERENCE IN DECEMBER

Pennsylvania is to have a State Conference of Charities and Correction organized in conformity with the national conference. While there has been a growing sentiment among Pennsylvania social workers in favor of this movement, it was first voiced publicly by the Central Council of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, representing most of the social agencies of the community. Later, at the meeting last April of the Western Pennsylvania Conference on Dependent Children held at Pittsburgh, a resolution was passed urging the organization of a state conference. About the same time the Central Committee on Neglected Children of Philadelphia, the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity and various social workers throughout the state expressed their approval of the movement. The first definite step toward organization was taken at the suggestion of Francis J. Torrance, president of the Pennsylvania State Board of Charities, when he called together about seventy-five Pennsylvanians in attendance at the national conference at Buffalo to consider plans for holding a state conference at Harrisburg December 7, 8 and 9, 1909.

A general committee on organization was appointed with F. H. Nibecker, superintendent of the House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa., as chairman, and Mrs. Edward G. Sowers of Ridgeway, president of the Western Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, as secretary.

The committee on publicity and invitations consists of Edwin D. Solenberger, Philadelphia, chairman; Bromley Wharton, Philadelphia; Elliott P. Kisner, Hazelton; Rev. Riley M. Little, Pittsburgh, and Francis J. Torrance, Pittsburgh. Messrs. Nibecker and Solenberger in consultation with the committee on organization were authorized to prepare the program for the Harrisburg meeting.

It is announced that Governor Stuart will be asked to speak at the opening meeting, and Mr. Torrance will make an address on the work of the Pennsylvania State Board of Charities. The attendance and co-operation of the Pennsyl-

vania readers of THE SURVEY are invited and they are urged to send suggestions to the chairman of the committee on organization.

The Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, organized in 1874 and one of the oldest organizations of its kind in the United States, will continue its annual meetings and co-operate with the new conference. Its secretary, Louis C. Colborn of Somerset, Pa., has accepted membership on the committee on organization.

AN IMPORTANT CHICAGO APPOINTMENT

James Mullenbach, who has been appointed assistant superintendent of the United Charities of Chicago, comes into the work with five years' experience as superintendent of the Chicago Municipal Lodging House. Mr. Mullenbach has made practical study of the problem of the homeless man. His broad interests, however, have made him a factor in many of the lines of social effort.

After graduating from the Chicago Theological Seminary, Mr. Mullenbach spent a year in study abroad on a fellowship from that institution. Upon his return he became identified with Dr. Graham Taylor in the work centering at Chicago Commons, serving as pastor of the neighborhood Tabernacle Congregational Church, whose services are held in the settlement building. Impressed by the opportunity for a ministry of social service, Mr. Mullenbach in 1904 accepted the superintendency of the Municipal Lodging House, succeeding Raymond Robins in that position.

He has not only conducted the Lodging House with great efficiency, but has made it an observation station in studying fundamental economic causes of vagrancy. Upon this subject he has frequently spoken at National Conferences of Charities and Correction and other gatherings.

The Chicago Municipal Lodging House may now be said to be thoroughly established as part of the city's social machinery. It has recently been taken from the jurisdiction of the Police Department and is now under the De-

partment of Health. Its most conspicuous effect on the general vagrancy situation in Chicago is shown in the fact that during the seven years of its existence the number of lodgings has totalled 230,000, while during the preceding seven years police station lodgings, prohibited after the lodging house started, numbered about 1,118,000.

STAGE CHILDREN BARRED IN LOUISIANA

Judge Andrew H. Wilson of the Juvenile Court of New Orleans takes no equivocal position as to children in theaters. In a recent case involving Rosemary Shields, a child ten years old, employed for a brief part in a vaudeville in connection with a ten cent show, Judge Wilson held the provisions of the child labor law to be constitutional, and the employer to be guilty as charged by Miss Jean Gordon, the factory inspector.

Amid the floods of sentimentality in which this subject has been drowned of late, it is refreshing to find a judge laying down the law as follows:

There can be no doubt of the proposition that the power to legislate for the protection of children is lodged in the legislature, that a broad and safe discretion is permitted, and that unless a law is cruel, unjust, arbitrary or unreasonable, it should be accepted by the people of the state and enforced by the courts . . .

On the other hand, from the humblest performance to the most magnificent, everyone represents toil and labor and work of the hardest and most exacting nature and stands for self-sacrifice and effort, and physical as well as mental toil, and labor that only professional men and women can appreciate. That it does develop into professional work, and that the stage most honorably and creditably has risen to a professional standard is true, but that it does not stand for hard work and labor and constant toil, physical as well as mental, I cannot and will not accept. The beautiful child involved in this matter had six days of training preparatory to her appearance, and has appeared twice daily for a half hour. As I said above, I cannot accept the proposition that even for this dear little girl her efforts have not been as labor and work, and I conscientiously believe her employment and occupation as charged is violative of the statute.

INTERESTING THE COLLEGE MEN IN SOCIAL BETTERMENT

The Intercollegiate Branch of the Y. M. C. A. in New York city has felt for some years that the college graduates were not being enlisted in the social, civic and religious work of the community in as large numbers as they might be. Business, social engagements, and pleasure, have drawn a large portion from the plans they made while in college to assist in social betterment. If such ambitious and clear-headed men are allowed to form their life plans without a clear presentation of their duty to the community within two years, it has been found to be extremely difficult to obtain a favorable hearing for such work from them.

The graduate committee of the Intercollegiate Branch has, therefore, for three years been quietly obtaining the names, addresses, interests and denominational preferences of the men as they graduate from the colleges of the East. It is in communication with practically all of the colleges which send men to the city and has the latest obtainable facts about over 2,000. Each year it has interested from 150 to 200 in the churches, settlements or social movements.

In the spring of 1909, a pamphlet was prepared and sent to all the eastern colleges to be given to the seniors who expected to come to New York city. It enumerated the movements desiring recruits under four heads: Institutional Churches Needing Workers, subdivided by denominations; Some of the Strong Churches Where College Men Will Undoubtedly Be Welcomed, Either for Worship or Service, or Both; Settlements; Social and Religious Organizations Needing Men. The names and addresses of those qualified to receive applications were supplied together with data designed to guide the would-be worker to the most congenial line of endeavor.

At present the committee is gathering facts regarding the membership of the men's organizations of the churches of

Manhattan and Brooklyn, with the avowed purpose of presenting to them large movements needing their support. It is hoped to attract the college men in larger numbers to the churches and the social work approved by them, and to point out to the men of the churches their great opportunity for serving the community. The work already done is proof of the fact that there is a need for such an organization and is a further confirmation of the fact that the Intercollegiate Branch of the Y. M. C. A. is entirely loyal to the churches.

A UNION STUDY OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

At the last meeting of the American Federation of Labor held in Denver, Mr. Gompers was authorized by the convention to appoint a committee, the majority of whose members must be trade unionists, to consider the question of industrial education—to make an investigation of the subject and to report thereon at the Toronto convention.

The first meeting of this committee, of which John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers of America is chairman and Frank Duffy, of the Brotherhood of Carpenters, secretary, was held in New York city August 20 and 21. A preliminary report will be drawn up in Washington next month to submit to the convention in November.

Because of Mr. Gomper's absence in Europe, the committee was appointed by James Duncan, first vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, who was added to the committee at the urgent request of the members. Mr. Duncan recognized the importance of women workers in the industrial field by including in his appointments Miss Agnes Nestor of the Glove Workers' Union and Mrs. Raymond Robins, of the Women's Trade Union League. The members of the committee are: John Mitchell, chairman; John Golden, president Textile Workers; James Wilson, president Pattern Makers' League; Agnes Nestor, secretary Glove Workers' International Union; Margaret Dreier Robins, president National Women's Trade Union

League; John B. Lennon, treasurer, American Federation of Labor; Charles P. Neill, United States commissioner of labor; Congressman W. B. Wilson; Frank Duffy, of the Brotherhood of Carpenters; Hugh Frayne, of the Sheet Metal Workers; P. J. Conlon, of the Machinists; Charles H. Winslow, Massachusetts Commission of Industrial Education; Edward Hirsch, editor of the *Labor Leader*, Baltimore; James Roach, of the Iron Moulders; Rev. Chas. Stelzle, Department Church and Labor of the Presbyterian Church; Stuart Reid, general organizer, American Federation of Labor, and James Duncan, first vice-president, American Federation of Labor.

CHILD CONFERENCE FOR RESEARCH AND WELFARE

The conference on children held at Clark University in July, which was reported in THE SURVEY of July 17, has resulted in a new organization to be known as the Child Conference for Research and Welfare. It has opened temporary offices at 6 King street, Worcester, Mass., and Henry S. Curtis, late secretary of the Playground Association of America, has been elected its general secretary. Mr. Curtis outlines the new society's aims as follows:

The child conference, as proposed, is not so much a new organization as it is a form of co-operation among existing organizations. It has no axe to grind, no aims of its own to pursue. It is founded on the belief that merely bringing together the specialists in child study and the workers from the different movements for the welfare of children will be sure to result in more unified, harmonious and effective action.

If it is feasible to get the secretaries or other leaders to give a resumé of the work of each of the movements during the year, the public will secure the easiest and pleasantest method of keeping informed on all that is being done for the children. When published, these addresses should give an authoritative account of the whole field, which would save much general reading.

The amount of really new truth, discovered each year is not great. It often takes a year's work and a long thesis to demonstrate some small belief that had been generally held before; but a belief once demonstrated is demonstrated for all time, and

should be made available at once to the practical workers.

The universities should be the laboratories of the great social movements, in as direct and practical a relation to them as the factory laboratory is to the factory work. This the conference should help accomplish. On the one hand, it should suggest practical problems to the scientists for investigation, and, on the other, it should present to the public the results of scientific investigations.

But perhaps the most important result should be the reaction of the practical workers and the scientists upon each other. It is the practical workers who have to deal with actual conditions, it is they who should suggest to the scientists the problems to be solved.

There is nothing inherently difficult in what is proposed. If the conference can be lengthened into a four or five weeks' summer school, it should offer the best sort of training for the practical workers and an inspiration to everyone. The only considerable problem in the situation seems to be the question of securing adequate funds to carry out the plan.

The child bureau to be established this fall at Clark University, while independent of the new organization, will be represented in it.

A SAN FRANCISCO MILK CONFERENCE

FLORENCE KELLEY
New York

San Francisco enjoys, with regard to its milk supply, two blessings, one permanent, a gift of nature, the other transitory, due to circumstances and soon to pass away. The first is the temperate climate, chilly in July and August, never hot and never freezing. The second is the fact that the milk supply comes from within a radius of sixty miles. With each year of growth of San Francisco and its surrounding municipalities, however, this radius must lengthen and, so far as the radius increases inland, the danger from summer heat for milk in transit must increase. For the temperate strip is narrowly confined to the coast.

Given these two blessings today, however, the task of the Milk Improvement Association is an unusually hopeful one as appeared at a recent conference held

in the office of the Board of Health to which the writer was courteously invited as representing the food committee of the National Consumers' League.

Dr. Broderick, commissioner of health, presided. Mr. Moore, a milk dealer, is permanent secretary of the association. Dr. Roadhouse, a veterinarian, graduate of Cornell University and dairy inspector for the city, reported upon his current work. He is installed through the efforts of the Milk Improvement Association which raised the money for his first year's salary. The excellence of his record assures his permanent appointment at the end of the year when he will have become a citizen of San Francisco and, therefore, eligible under the civil service law.

The representative of the railways which carry milk into San Francisco described the scattered ranches of Italians and Portuguese who ship milk in small quantities from hundreds of crossroads, and he complained of imperfect cans and lids which do not bear being thrown to the ground while the train is in motion!

The milk dealers, in their own defense, described the exposure by the railroads of milk in transit to the presence of fish and poultry crates (carried on the top of the cans)! They complained of loss and destruction of cans and lids for want of proper railway platforms, of needed milk cars, and of inadequate employes on the trains.

Health Commissioner Broderick, facing the need of protecting the life and health of the consumers, with justice to railroads and dealers, continues these conferences, urging adjustments by both railroads and dealers. He carries on a ceaseless campaign of education of milk ranchers. He commands respect by his integrity and ability and enjoys the good will and backing of the medical profession. The railroads know that an appeal by him to the State Railroad Commission would not be disregarded. And each milk dealer knows that his own milk supply may at any time be excluded from the city.

For a citizen of New York it was startling to see at this conference, taking an

important part in it, William E. Burton, in charge of dairy inspection for the New York City Department of Health. For this conference occurred on August 2, one of the days on which infant mortality in New York city annually reaches its maximum by reason of bad milk.

Asked how he could be away from his post of duty, doing missionary work, during one of the most dangerous weeks in the year when private citizens in New York redouble their efforts and their subscriptions to every movement intended to save the lives of the children during the terrible heat, Mr. Burton replied that his visit to San Francisco was incidental to an interesting and agreeable visit to the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition in Seattle.

To the San Franciscans, this pleasure trip in July and August may well have seemed as though their own fire chief, instead of dying of his injuries, had taken a vacation during the fire that followed the earthquake!

COMPETITION OR CO-OPERATION IN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION¹

GEORGE M. GILLETTE

President Minnesota Employers' Association and member of the State Commission for Compensation of Employes

The subject of workingmen's compensation acts has in several states probably passed the stage of academic discussion.

We believe that at least in four states it may be safely assumed that a workman's compensation act would be favored by practically all classes if one could be framed which would be fair to employers, employes and society. We believe it is about time to get down to earth and consider the practical difficulties connected with the framing of such an act. Attention has frequently been called to the constitutional difficulties and they are admittedly serious,

but I am inclined to think if an act could be so framed that it would meet with general satisfaction and approval, the courts would find a way to sustain it. What sort of a measure would it be fair to propose to the legislatures of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois or New York? Must not such a measure possess all the following qualities?

First, reasonable compensation to the injured.

Second, the elimination of litigation.

Third, the elimination of common law or statutory liability other than named in the compensation act.

Fourth, fairness to the employers and to the industries of the state. By this I mean imposing no more serious financial burdens on the employers or industries of a given state than those resting upon employers and industries of other states.

I assume there would be little discussion or difference of opinion over any of these, to me, fundamental principles of a compensation act until we come to the last. To my own mind, this last qualification involves the most difficult practical questions of all. In the first place, in Minnesota, I could name a number of corporations which have manufacturing establishments located in different states. If the conditions were not favorable in Minnesota, if their burdens here were too heavy and too great, the Legislature of that state would by the passage of such an act, discourage and debar industry instead of encouraging it as it should in the development of a somewhat new state. I can name a vast number of American industries and lines of manufacture which are represented in Minnesota, by only one, two or three establishments, the great bulk of them being located in other states throughout the country. It is for the interest of the state itself to be fair to these industries. It must not repel industries which seek entrance, nor discourage those already located within its borders. Else the state's development will be stifled, capital will seek investment elsewhere and labor itself be unable to find employment. Then, how shall a single state proceed in

¹ Written by request of the American Association for Labor Legislation. It is in continuation of the series on labor legislation which appeared in THE SURVEY of June 12 and August 21. The former articles were by Miss Irene Osgood, Ernest Freund, Charles McCarthy and Florence Kelley.

this matter, and what can it do? Must it not be conservative in initiating this reform?

This resolves the matter into an actuarial problem, and where shall we go to obtain the statistics? No state in the union has them tabulated in such a form and so complete as to be of conclusive value. Employers' liability companies have the only available definite statistics in existence in this country, and they naturally are not seeking to make public the result of the experience which they have acquired at such great cost. It is true that most foreign nations have compensation acts and many of them have been in operation for a period of years, but I know of no foreign act which could be transplanted to this country and survive. We understand that approximately one injury in ten is now compensated. We do not even know this definitely. We understand that only from twenty to thirty per cent of the insurance premiums paid by employers ultimately reach injured employes, but this is also guess work, as the reports made by the liability companies mingle their premiums received on industrial risks with their other liability premiums and the lawyer does not report the amount of toll he takes so that this too is guess work.

But if these estimates were correct, what sort of a scale of compensations could be provided for the various classes of industrial injuries which would compensate the ninety per cent who now receive no compensation out of the seventy or eighty per cent of alleged waste of the present system? In other words, is it possible to multiply by ten the number of persons who would be compensated under such an act, and to pay them a reasonably fair scale of compensations out of the seventy or eighty per cent waste of the present system? If there is such a waste, how by any figures in existence or available can you tell whether there is such a waste and if so, whether this can be done or not?

If it should be found impossible to frame a compensation act which would yield reasonably adequate compensations to injured employes, without increasing

the cost to employers who operate under the existing system, would it be advisable to propose that the employes themselves contribute to the fund and would they accept such a proposal?

This is not a complaint, it is a cry for help. It is an attempt to get down to the practical questions involved in this undertaking. To my mind, it would be unwise from every standpoint to propose legislation based on guess work. It might be ruinous to those engaged in interstate competition, and if the state made such a mistake, it would have accomplished no good, but would only have committed an economic blunder, and retarded the reform.

EIGHT MILLION DOLLARS TO PREVENT TUBER- CULOSIS

PHIL P. JACOBS

Assistant Secretary, The National Association
for the Study and Cure of Tuberculosis

Appropriations of over \$4,000,000 for the suppression of consumption have been made by twenty-eight state legislatures during 1909. It is estimated that the county and municipal appropriations for the same purpose will be at least \$3,000,000. These sums with nearly \$1,000,000 from the federal government for the support of its sanatoriums, makes a total of \$8,000,000 granted from public funds for next year's fight against tuberculosis.

Since January 1, 1909, forty-three state and territorial legislatures have held sessions. Of this number, twenty-eight have passed laws pertaining to tuberculosis; eight have considered such legislation, and in only seven states no measures about consumption were presented. In all, 101 laws relating to the prevention or treatment of human tuberculosis were considered and of these sixty-four were passed.

Of the laws passed, fourteen were in reference to new state institutions. State sanatoriums for tuberculosis will be built in Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Arkansas, Oregon, South Dakota, North Dakota and Florida. In New York, North Caro-

lina, Indiana, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Maine, appropriations have been made for enlarging sanatoriums, already being built or in operation. There are now twenty-seven states where such institutions have been established. Every state east of the Mississippi, except Illinois, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee and South Carolina have them. In Pennsylvania the State Department of Health is planning to erect a large hospital for advanced cases of tuberculosis in addition to the State Sanatorium at Mount Alto. Connecticut will build three institutions in different parts of the state at a cost of \$175,000.

Illinois, New York, Ohio, Minnesota and Iowa passed laws giving their county officers power to erect sanatoriums, without resorting to a special vote. The demand for housing tuberculosis patients near their own homes is inspiring these laws providing for small county and municipal hospitals without the cumbersome machinery of an election.

In Maine, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Michigan, Iowa and Kansas, laws were passed for the strict report and registration of tuberculosis. Only five states, including the District of Columbia, have such laws, which must be the first requisite in an organized movement against the disease. Without adequate statistics with regard to death and cases efforts for its suppression are misdirected and often wasteful.

Laws prohibiting promiscuous spitting in public places, were passed in Maine, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Kansas and Connecticut. Spitters in these states will be prosecuted and fined. While it is a difficult matter to enforce a state anti-spitting law, the acts serve as a stimulus to local governing bodies to pass similar ordinances. With the present increase in interest in the prevention of tuberculosis, expectoration in cars and public buildings is decreasing, but the only way definitely to stop it is to arrest and punish the offenders. Where this has been done, the nuisance has decreased very rapidly. It is not the dream of an optimist to suppose that the trolley, elevated and subway cars of New York could

be absolutely rid of this source of disgust if a comprehensive crusade against it were started.

Probably the most difficult appropriation to secure from a legislature is one for education in the prevention of a disease. State bodies seem willing to give money for institutions and buildings, but so incomprehensible a thing as education does not appeal to them, as a rule. Yet, eleven states have this year granted nearly \$100,000 for the instruction of the public about tuberculosis. In California, Iowa, Kansas, New York, Minnesota, and Rhode Island the money will be spent mainly on exhibits and lectures. In Porto Rico an appropriation of \$9,000 calls, particularly for the education of school children. The Philippine Islands Legislature has given \$20,000 for general educational work. A commission to study tuberculosis and educate the people has been appointed in Texas. Delaware has established a permanent tuberculosis commission to form dispensaries and carry on a propaganda of enlightenment. In several other states, where no definite appropriations were made, some educational work will be done out of the regular funds of the health department.

Considering the large number of measures enacted, it is worthy of note that few laws of a pernicious character got through. The Nebraska Legislature passed a measure providing for the payment by county boards for the treatment of patients in institutions at the rate of ten dollars a week, but stipulating that such treatment must be by the "modern methods of vaccine therapy." This "modern method of vaccine therapy" refers to a serum manufactured by a Nebraska doctor. The law thus becomes the means of compelling the local physicians to use a drug which has little or no merit, it is alleged, in the cure of tuberculosis. In this manner the good features of the law are practically nullified.

Increased registration and increased hospital provision for advanced cases of tuberculosis are urgently needed. It is hoped that these two features of the anti-consumption campaign will receive especial emphasis in legislatures next year.

RUSSIA'S MESSAGE¹

A HITHERTO UNPUBLISHED REVIEW FROM THE PEN OF THE
LATE SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS

Mr. Walling's book fills a new and distinct place among recent books on Russia, especially among those by foreign writers. Of the works which have appeared upon Russia during the past ten years, except those by native writers to which few have access, many are descriptive, historic, or political in their character. They have been written to convey information as to Russian facts and problems, to describe the Russian people, the Duma, and the great movements in the modern drama of Russian political history. Subordinate to his main purpose, Mr. Walling does all this, and does it effectively; but he writes not "suggesting what we can do for Russia, but rather what Russia has to offer us." He has concerned himself "with the universal qualities of the Russian people rather than with any aspect of their character and constitution that is peculiar to themselves." The volume is imposing in its size, as almost any volume must be that deals adequately with so vast a subject as modern Russia; but it is still more imposing in its largeness of view, in the magnitude of its hopes and ideals. A book purely descriptive of conditions in Russia may easily plunge one into pessimism. Not only do present conditions arouse pity and indignation, but they raise within us the anxious question, Is there any escape from this dreadful incubus of autocracy?

In Russia's Message the reader will be moved to the very depths, but his indignation is not awakened to end in hopeless pity. Through all the darkness and tragedy, and through all the labyrinth of social and political complications in which the reader is obliged to grope, there is a thread of hope which leads into the light, at least for those who believe in the logic of democracy.

Mr. Walling has had exceptional op-

portunities for the preparation of his book. His attention was first drawn to Russia by Polish and Jewish Russian exiles whom he met while living among them in the University Settlement in New York. Leaving the United States shortly after the massacre of January 22, 1905, he spent several months in London, Paris, Geneva, Cracow, and Vienna among leaders of the revolutionary parties of all factions and races. Within a week after the Czar issued his October manifesto Mr. Walling was in Warsaw and a few days later in St. Petersburg. Here he met Witte and the chief members of his ministry, and at the same time placed himself in touch with the most conservative of the revolutionary organization. He remained most of the time in Russia until the opening of the third Duma. American readers are familiar with the fact that near the close of his visit he and his wife and her sister were arrested and detained for twenty-four hours in prison. Mr. Walling corrects however, the misstatement of some papers that the Russian government made either a direct or indirect request through the Russian ambassador that they should leave the country. "We had wished to follow Russian events closely only until the meeting of the third Duma, and we left St. Petersburg on the day on which we had previously arranged to go." It may be taken for granted by those who read his book that the Russian government would not cordially welcome him back.

Mr. Walling has made free use of his articles in American periodicals, some of which appeared in *Charities and The Commons*, but nine-tenths of his book is new. Though familiar with the Polish and Finnish situations he has not included any account of his studies in that field, nor has he dealt with Asiatic Russia. Even with these restrictions his task was large enough.

This book was not written in a library;

¹Russia's Message. The True World Import of the Revolution, by William English Walling. Illustrated. Pp. 476. 1908. \$3. This book may be obtained at publisher's price through the offices of THE SURVEY.

it is not a compilation or working over of a score of volumes that have preceded it. The author has not neglected competent authority in securing information and tracing tendencies; but his sources have been mainly living men and women. His work is a fresh and living reflection of the Russia of to-day, and a prophecy of the Russia of to-morrow.

The work is divided into five parts entitled respectively, *The Birthplace of Social Freedom; Oppression; Revoit; Evolution of a New Nation, and Revolution and the Message.* In part one the author shows *Why Russia is the Field of the Great Experiment.*

The future of humanity is being decided in Russia because it is Russia alone among the great nations that has not already definitely chosen the path of her development. . . . Russia's unparalleled tragedy is not due to any innate conservatism in the national character, nor to the grip on the people's soul of old customs and an old faith, but to an incredible incubus that has been imposed upon her from without, and like a monstrous parasite has grown strong at the expense of all her best vital forces. . . . Though she is without a vestige of political liberty Russia is more vitally alive to every great political and social issue than the freest countries. . . . The soul of the future civilization, is foreshadowed in the conflict. . . .

It is perhaps the first time in history that a whole nation has been infected to the point of religious enthusiasm by this purely social faith. Something like this occurred in France. But as the revolution there did not meet a tithe of the obstacles that this one has already met it did not develop a tithe of the intensity, profundity, or universal scope of the present movement. This is why so many great thinkers feel that the present revolution means more to humanity than any great popular movement, political, economic or religious that all history records.

In part two ten chapters are devoted to a study of Russian autocracy and its system of oppression. Official cruelty in Russia is often ascribed by apologists to the czar's weakness. Mr. Walling places upon Nicholas himself a full share of responsibility for the wholesale massacres as well as for "the monstrous system of crime and plunder called the Russian government." Nevertheless the present revolutionary movement is di-

rected against czarism rather than against any particular czar. In describing the persecutions of the government the author takes the Jews as the central theme, because "they have been selected by the government as the center of the whole persecution system." These and other persecutions have made it more and more evident that the czar is governing now by mere brutal physical force, and the question is how long can a throne abide which rests on no moral or social basis. A government which is cruelly and persistently at war with its own people must sooner or later face its own ruin.

Economic conditions are painted with skilled detail. In the struggle for liberty, the landlord class assumes new importance. "For a thousand years the people of Russia have been living under double slavery—abject economic subjection to the landlords and abject political subjection to the state . . . as for centuries the czarism and the landlord caste stand united to maintain their rule." Writers on economic conditions in Russia have treated them too frequently apart from the political condition with which they are allied. The reforms of the landlord are in the direction of perpetuating autocracy. The question of liberty in Russia pertains not only to freedom of speech, but to the rights of property. The condition of the peasant is dark enough. The average peasant farmer is to-day producing less to the acre than he did at the time of emancipation forty years ago. The annual death rate is already forty in a thousand, twice that of any other civilized country. "The frequent famines are worse in years of drouth, but the drouth is only a secondary cause of the suffering. With more means and modern methods the peasant would have twice the crop even in dry years."

Though the poverty and ignorance of the Russian peasant are set forth in detail showing upon what a low plane of physical comfort he lives and with what poor tools he does his work, Mr. Walling repels with zeal and even indignation the charge of stupidity, inertness, and lack of creative power made against the peasantry by some writers. They have

never settled down into patient and dumb acquiescence of autocratic rule. Mr. Walling finds the peasant a democrat in everything and a socialist in regard to the land; that he is almost without race prejudice, and that he is liberal and even independent in his religious views. The best vindication of the spirit of the Russian peasantry is shown in the first and second Dumas to which they elected leaders who voiced their feelings and aspirations. Where in the struggle of any people for liberty, in the French revolution or in our own, can be found a nobler document than the reply of the first Duma to the speech from the throne in May, 1906? Even our own Declaration of Independence is a hundred years behind it in some things, such as the recognition of the equality of the sexes before the law and the demand for the abolition of capital punishment. This noble document of the Russian people well bears out the contention of the author that the Russian revolution is not a mere political struggle for emancipation from an archaic form of government: it is the movement of the masses to regenerate Russian society.

To one unfamiliar with Russian village democracy it may seem surprising that a country so brutally dominated by czarism should be so thoroughly permeated by socialism, except as a reactionary force against autocratic oppression; but a deeper reason is found in the structure and evolution of peasant society.

The hundred thousand villages where the mass of the Russian people live are in their internal affairs so many little immemorial republics. At the present moment, as at the earliest dawn of history, they are ruled by a pure spirit of democracy, not only in political but in economic affairs. A large part of the peasant land is village property used by all the villagers in common; the rest is divided and from time to time redistributed, according to the ideas of equity of the whole village. An estimate is made of each family's claims, either at the death of its head, or at the time of a general census, and the family is allotted a certain proportion of the village ploughed land, but no person is ever allowed to claim a right to a particular piece of soil. He has merely a right to a certain quantity. There is no such thing as title and private ownership of the land itself since it is not

a product of individual labor but a "gift of God." . . . This is why the peasant deputies in the Duma can say with perfect truth that the peasants do not want the land to buy and sell but merely to plough. They want more land in order that they may have more work. They have never in their own experience known what rents or unearned profits from landownership are.

It is thus in the socialistic commune developed in the Russian *mir* that the socialist revolutionists find the basis for the future of the Russian state. Our own history has proceeded along lines of individualism and to absorb our native Indians into our political life we have been obliged to break up their socialistic tribal organization and secure to them private property in land. There are those who maintain that the Russian peasant can only develop in the same way. Mr. Walling and the socialists deny this and find naturally the logical outcome of the *mir* to be the nationalization of the land.

We have not space to follow the author through the terrible story of oppression and revolt and through the varied transitions and fortune of the different parties. From beginning to end the indictment of the government is insistent and with the failure of the government the question naturally arises, Can the people produce their own leaders? and who are they? The question is well answered in the book as it was answered in the Duma. It is not alone intellectual ability that is needed for the regeneration of the Russian people. If this were all, splendid and abundant examples of intellectual capacity could easily be produced; but what is even more needed is that very enthusiasm for a social and political ideal which has led thousands of Russians, many of them leaders in their communities, to sacrifice their lives not from personal ambition, but for the welfare of their people.

It is idle to ask whether a revolution will break out in Russia. It has been going on all the time. Thirty thousand people have already been killed in the struggle for freedom, and the greater part of Russia is practically under some form of martial law. The reactionary policy of the government must be held responsible for the development of a

guerilla warfare which eventually may assume greater proportion. Who can tell how long the struggle will last!

Mr. Walling is ardent, radical, inspired with a lofty, social faith, and a social ideal. It is not to be expected of an advocate that he shall also be judicial. We ask ourselves has he done full justice to the constitutional democrats and to Milyukov, their leader, who are working for a bloodless solution through evolutionary and parliamentary forces?

Though this striking book is a message from Russia to humanity its predominant interest for most readers will naturally be in the Russian struggle itself and the realization in its own history and life of sublime ideals. Mr. Walling is graphic, inspiring, intense. His volume is a noble contribution to the history of social and political liberty in Russia. It is the fullest and best presentation of the heart and soul of the revolutionary movement that has yet been made.

The writer of this review, himself a recent visitor to Russia, came away from that country with a conviction of the profound intellectual, social, and moral forces that are working together for the emancipation of the Russian people. That the struggle will eventually issue in full political freedom the writer has the firmest conviction. France and the United States through great political revolutions have already made a permanent contribution to human history. They have sent their message to Russia and now it may be, by another pathway of revolution, Russia will emerge from its village democracy not only into political freedom, but into an era of social justice and equality. Mr. Walling's faith in Russia is founded on his faith in humanity. Not all his social program may be realized; but if social and political justice in the larger sense be not achieved, not only democracy, but humanity itself is a failure.

ECONOMICAL CONSTRUCTION OF COUNTY HOSPITALS FOR TUBERCULOSIS

THOMAS SPEES CARRINGTON, M. D.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY AND PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS AND IN CHARGE OF THE BUREAU OF CONSTRUCTION

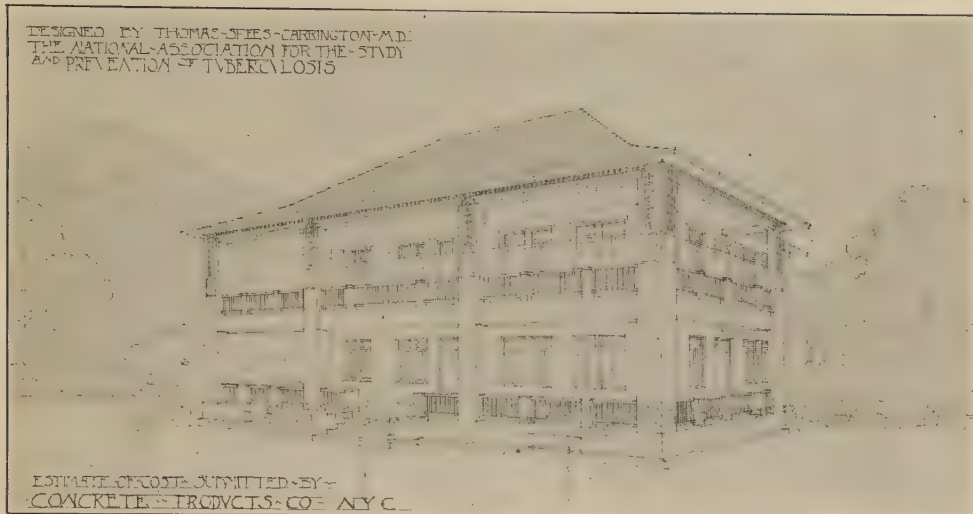
Six states, Illinois, Iowa, New York, Ohio, Minnesota and Virginia, have now passed laws giving power to county supervisors to establish hospitals for tuberculous patients in their respective counties. Besides these six states some others have a provision in their constitutions which gives practically the same power to county supervisors.

Such an important move through the legislatures should be appreciated and understood by the people of the country, as it is part of a general movement, taking place all over the United States to care for the consumptive as near his home as possible.

A short resumé of the principal points in the act passed by the last New York state Legislature, which is typical of them all, is therefore used as a preface to this article.

The New York act gives Boards of County Supervisors power by a majority vote to establish hospitals for the care and treatment of persons suffering from consumption. The boards are allowed to purchase or lease real property in any city, town or village in the county, to erect the necessary buildings and make such improvements and repairs of existing buildings as they see fit. They are also given the power to appoint boards of managers and levy taxes for such sums of money as they deem necessary to build and maintain the institution.

In the New York act and in the majority of the others, it is provided that patients who are financially able must pay a sum equal to the cost of their maintenance but, if unable, the superintendent has power to accept them free, or assess them such an amount as he be-



ADMINISTRATION BUILDING OF CONCRETE TILE.

Suitable for a sanatorium for fifty patients. It costs \$12,000.

lieves they are able to pay, after investigating their circumstances. This provision allows for the treatment of persons of moderate means, without their becoming listed as paupers.

After these acts were passed, the Boards of Supervisors in numerous counties began investigations as to the need for hospitals in their respective counties and the writer was invited to meet with special committees in a number of instances to give figures and plans for building; in some cases to examine prospective sites. In every county visited the supervisors and citizens seemed to appreciate the need for a hospital, but feared the carrying out of the law would entail great expense. When a hospital was mentioned to those who had not considered the question, there seemed to arise in their minds the phantom of a great substantial building, constructed on the lines of a barracks, and consuming the county funds, both during the building, and later in its maintenance. After this specter had been dispelled, they became interested, their attitude of opposition disappeared and they were delighted to know that open air buildings for the treatment of tuberculosis could be cheaply constructed and maintained. It would seem that one of the important duties

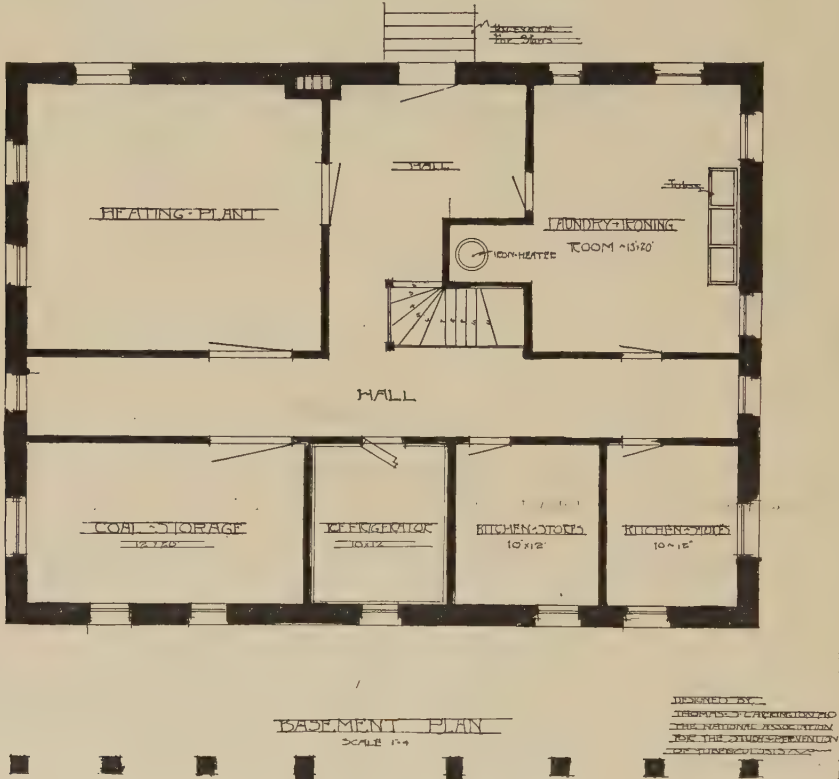
resting upon the societies fighting tuberculosis, is to publish broadcast a statement making clear to the farmer as well as to the town and city dweller, how easily, simply and cheaply these buildings can be constructed and why the cost of maintenance is low.

One of the first questions to come before the supervisors after they have decided to build the institution is the location, and those interested can then use their influence to have the hospital placed as close as possible to the county seat or to the largest city in the county. A site on a direct trolley line is very desirable so that it can easily be reached by the patients' friends. It is always hard to hold consumptives in a sanatorium at first, as the very sick do not like to leave their families and incipient patients become restless if they are not happy. If the hospital is close to the city where visitors can reach it every day by a short trolley trip, the location will help very largely in making the patients contented. The site should be a tract of land, preferably one hundred acres in extent, including forest, orchard, and land that can be cultivated. It is now generally conceded that incipient patients improve faster when they are supplied with work, and under a wise, well-informed medical

superintendent they will be able to do a large part of the farm work, with real benefit to themselves and large reduction in the cost of their maintenance. When there is choice of a number of sites, a damp or swampy location should carefully be avoided as such land when used for a sanatorium must be drained often by a sub-soil method which is expensive. A good supply of water is a necessity and it will be well, for this reason, if a farm can be secured within the line of

the quality of the soil, the rise of the land and the position of water-courses and lakes enter into the question and increase or reduce the cost of installation and maintenance. As the expense of preparing some land for a sanatorium site is very great and on other property a large outlay for improvements is not necessary, it is advisable to have a thorough examination of desirable land made by a competent sanitary engineer.

The expense of construction will be

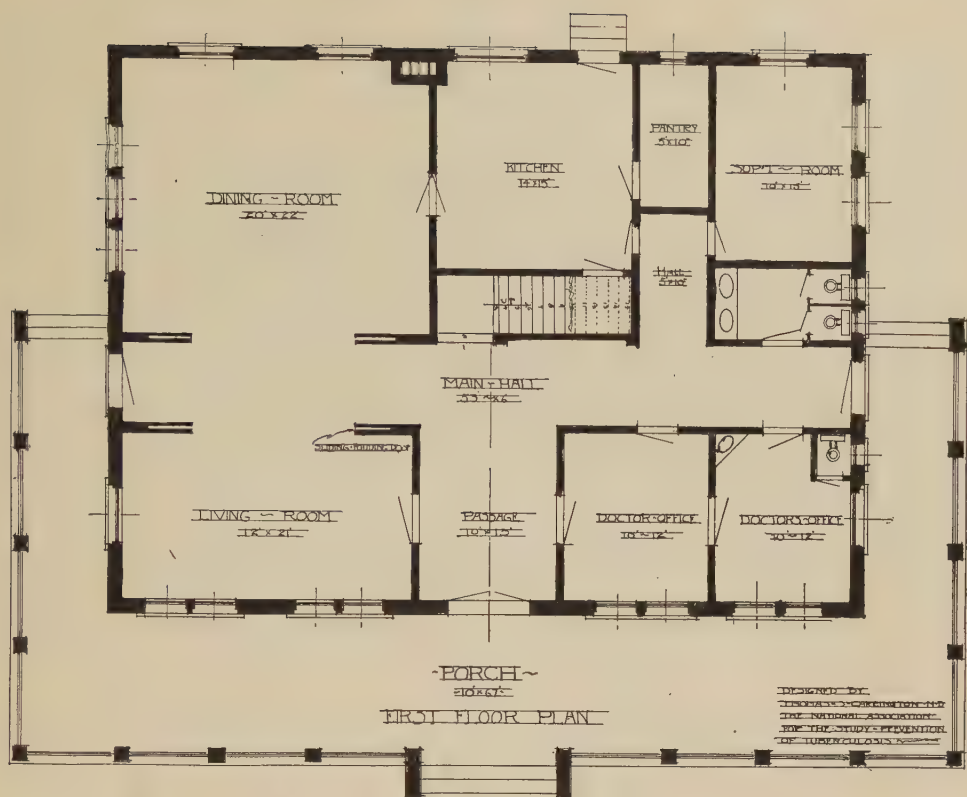


THE BASEMENT.

Here are the laundry, heating plant, refrigerator and storage.

the city water supply and sewer system. The question of water, sewage disposal and lights will then be settled and great expense saved. When this is impossible there should be good springs, a running stream of clear water or a thoroughly protected well on the site, and if these are not above the buildings a pumping plant will be necessary. The disposal of sewage from the institution must be considered before the land is acquired, as

materially reduced if good, substantial farm buildings are on the property. These must also be examined carefully and an estimate given of the cost of correcting unsanitary conditions, special care being used to learn if the buildings are damp at any season of the year and what is necessary to remedy the defect. The farmhouse can be used as an administration building and, if large enough, the kitchen, dining-room, amusement room



FIRST FLOOR PLAN.

In a space fifty-four by forty feet are the kitchen, dining room, sitting room and offices.

and offices may be arranged on the ground floor. The second floor will be needed for nurses and servants' quarters, but it should be thoroughly cleaned and painted throughout and toilet and baths added. The barns and outbuildings, if in good condition, save a large outlay. They can be used for cows and chickens, as domestic animals, farm and garden produce should be counted on to reduce the cost of maintenance.

When a farm is selected without a house, it is advisable to put up a small, plain, but well-constructed administration building. This can be erected by using concrete tile for about \$12,000. The plans accompanying this article will give some information in regard to its size and arrangement.

In the basement are placed the heating plant, a refrigerator, coal bunkers, and a room for the laundry. On the first floor are the doctor's and superintendent's of-

fices, a large kitchen, a dining room to seat forty patients, and a sitting room opening by folding doors into the hall and dining room, so that the two rooms can be thrown together for amusement purposes. The second floor is divided into medium sized rooms for the officers, nurses and servants, and most of the apartments open by doors on the large veranda, so that the upper story may be used as an infirmary or for nurses and servants who, if they have been cured of tuberculosis, will often wish to sleep in the open air.

At the present time the simplest method of housing incipient cases is to use the lean-to type of building. A good, substantial lean-to housing sixteen patients, and divided in the center by toilet, locker and sitting rooms, can be built for \$2,500. If two such structures are erected on one side of the administration building, one lean-to can be used for the

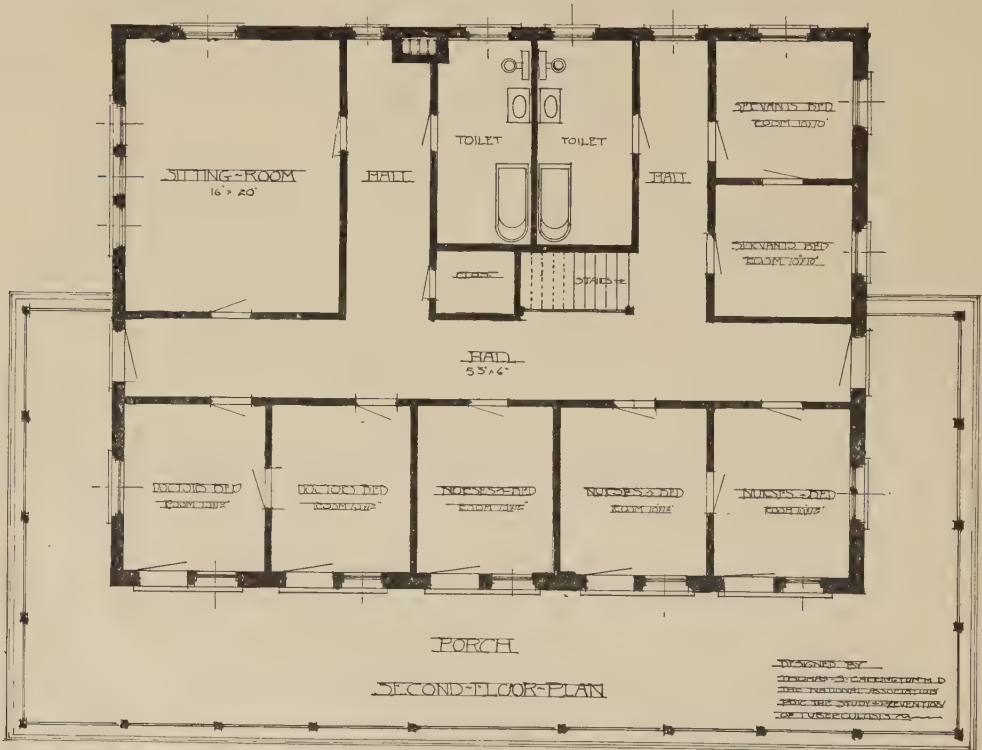
women and one for the men. These buildings can be placed on brick piers without cellars, and the front of the porches protected by canvas curtains. A heating plant is unnecessary but the toilet, dressing and sitting rooms should be heated by a stove. The open porches are usually left without ceiling or other finish. For these reasons the incipient patients' quarters can be built cheaply, and as the outside walls and roof are shingled and stained they have an attractive appearance.

Two lean-tos for thirty-two incipient cases and one building for advanced cases housing sixteen patients will make the capacity of the institution forty-eight beds, which is usually as large as it is advisable for a county institution to start with.

Consumptives as well as their families and friends need education on the treatment of tuberculosis, and it may take months after the first buildings are erected to fill them, but as the people of the

county become interested in the sanatorium they will realize what a great blessing it is to have a hospital near at hand. A knowledge of the infectious nature of the disease causes the people to demand the protection obtained by removing advanced cases from the homes, and the patients returning cured will also help make the institution popular.

The building for advanced cases can be built on the plan of a lean-to but more substantially than that for incipient cases. Glass doors or windows are needed to close in the porches during the cold weather, and as the porches then become wards, they must be finished in plaster or ceiled with close fitting boards. Partitions between the beds are advisable, as they add to the patients' comfort and give privacy to those who are very sick. A steam or hot water plant will be needed for the entire building, and the dressing and sitting rooms, nurses' quarters, diet kitchen and equipment can be arranged in the center apartment.



SECOND FLOOR PLAN.

This is arranged to house the sanatorium staff.



LEAN-TO AT MARYLAND SANATORIUM.

This shows the arrangement of sash and glass front for advanced cases, 26 by 122 feet.

A lean-to constructed in this manner will cost about \$5,000, but it will have much the same exterior as that used for incipient cases and so give uniformity to the institution.

The method suggested here of separate heating arrangements for the administration building and the advanced ward, with stoves for the dressing and sitting rooms in the lean-tos for incipient cases, is much cheaper than a central power and heating plant such as large state institutions often build. If, however, the money for a power plant is available it can be put in at once as it will be needed if the institution is greatly enlarged.

Many of the county hospital laws provide that the superintendent shall accept all classes of cases (both incipient and advanced) who apply for admission. In states where this provision is made, patients' quarters should be divided into two units and built on opposite sides and as far from the administration building as will admit of easy and economical management. A bad effect is produced upon incipient patients who are on the road to recovery, by the death of patients in the advanced wards. Advanced cases are taken into the hospital in order to

isolate them and reduce the danger of infection in the homes from which they come. Therefore, it is to be expected that they will die in the hospital and arrangements must be made for such events.

These suggestions only call for an appropriation of \$22,000 for buildings, which will provide for the patients in attractive structures which a county will be able to show to visitors with pride. This sum, of course, does not take into consideration the purchase price of the site, or the cost of beautifying it and supplying the water and sewage disposal plants.

It has been suggested in a number of cases that the county farm or almshouse should be used as a site for the tuberculosis hospital, and so save the expense of purchasing land and erecting an administration building. Those interested in a county tuberculosis sanatorium should use all their influence to prevent such a dismal ending of their project. A self-respecting patient, no matter how small his income, will not go to the almshouse, nor will the members of a family send those they love to a

sanatorium which is closely connected with a pauper institution. Such suggestions if carried out will defeat the purpose of the bill and so should be fought at every opportunity.

Supervisors of counties who have thoroughly investigated the subject and appreciate the great need of such institutions, are often willing to expend large sums if necessary for the sanatorium

and such money when available can well be used in perfecting the site and enlarging the administration building.

Any amount expended to perfect the water and sewage disposal plants, increase the productiveness of the farm, or beautify and improve the site, will well repay the supervisors in reducing the cost of maintenance and promoting the cure of the patients.

THE TREND OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION AND ENDORSEMENT

PART III

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

In any review of the present trend, it must not be forgotten that though there has been no definite development in this direction, the question of centralizing and thereafter apportioning bulk funds, has been discussed seriously. As at present considered the plan does not mean that any appeal will be made to the community in general to send its contributions through one source, but that the members of the particular commercial bodies interested, would be invited so to do. That is, the members of the chamber of commerce or the board of trade would agree to pool their lump contributions and have them apportioned to the different charities, according to their needs, by a committee of their own. This gives the freedom of appeal to any sort of organization and technically there is not a charity trust. On the other hand, it is apparent that if a very important commercial body did actually thus pool the contributions of its own members, its influence would undoubtedly predominate so far as undertakings of any magnitude were concerned. As was said before, the writer is not aware that any experiment along this line has actually been tried. It would be a return to the old plan of collection through one center, but under vastly different conditions. Under the Liverpool plan each society added its cry to all of the others, and each one took pot luck in the returns. The new plan would mean the collection of a certain

stated amount and then its apportionment among the different societies according to the value placed upon their needs by the committee in charge.

One need scarcely pause to point out the dangers lying in this attempt at centralization. Nor, on the other hand, can its positive merits be overlooked. It is not sufficient nor applicable to cite the success of the United Jewish Charities in this connection. Though enthusiastic persons in various communities have urged that what was accomplished in this field might be accomplished in other fields, there can be no doubt but that there are such vital differences that whatever experiments are worked out upon the basis outlined, will be new. The first experiment will be watched with a great deal of interest, both with reference to its immediate effects as well as its permanent effects. The latter may vary much from the former.

But it is not our purpose in this article to come to any conclusion as to the value of the complete centralization of funds, or at least centralization of the contributions of the members of great business organizations. We have spoken of this future possibility simply to illustrate the growing tendency of commercial bodies to take up this vital part of their work. The movement has become so strong that charity organization workers will soon be in a position where they may accuse their own local business association of

being behind the times unless they are lined up with them. It will not be long before men who expect to serve as secretaries of commercial organizations will be expected to have some knowledge of social work and social programs. It will not be sufficient for them to know simply how to boom the town and advertise its resources, or rather their advertising will be developed more amply by their being able to speak of good social and economic conditions, or the improvement of bad conditions. For intelligent manufacturers locating plants will more and more inquire in what environment their working people are going to live, realizing that it will have much to do with their character and health, all of which will have bearing upon the efficiency of their factories and the quality of their output. Already southern mill owners have learned that improved housing pays for itself in improved output. Factory managers in the same state, for instance, will tell different stories regarding the permanency of their employes. The stories are different because housing and other conditions are different. This is only one illustration of one phase of the question.

It will be perceived that in the last few paragraphs we have turned from the field of charities endorsement, simply, to that of the relation of business organizations to the general social uplift of cities. Of course the right development of the charitable work is an absolute prerequisite for right social development.

There is, however, something to be said about the immediate relationship between business organizations and the general work of the associated charities which, in the smaller cities, often happens to be the only organization dealing with social conditions in general. For that reason there is very great need of thorough and cordial understanding between it and business organizations. When objection is made by a society that it has never been able to make the chamber of commerce or board of trade see things in this light, then it is worth while to make sure that the work itself has been laid out upon sufficiently broad lines. It is the writer's experience that busi-

ness organizations as a rule are quick to respond to any broad statement of the associated charities work, or any description of some specific activity which it is carrying on. Furthermore, this does not interfere with their keen appreciation of good case work. On the other hand, nothing will appeal less to business men of large views than some petty work of distributing a few old clothes and groceries without anything else being involved.

It will not be understood from the above that the official relation between the associated charities and the chamber of commerce should not be entirely in connection with charities endorsement or the confidential bureau of information. Recently suggestion was made to one or two societies organizing the central councils of charities, as outlined last month, to request local commercial bodies to become officially represented upon it. In Pittsburgh a plan has been proposed by which the Chamber of Commerce will be jointly represented upon the charities committee with representatives from the central council itself. This committee is to deal with questions regarding charitable enterprises, while at the same time it brings the Chamber of Commerce much closer officially to the central council. It may be said incidentally that this same Chamber of Commerce made a careful investigation of the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh and printed its conclusions in a sixteen page pamphlet. The committee of the Chamber of Commerce went carefully into every branch of the Associated Charities' work. It visited the district conferences and went through every detail of registration up to case treatment and co-operation with other societies. It endorsed this society as being one of the chief business needs of the city.

If it is impossible to have official connection between the local commercial bodies and the associated charities, either through a committee on charities or the central council, it is still possible to secure their co-operation in carrying out specific activities, or specific reforms. In conclusion it may be said that in the larger cities there is appreciation of business co-operation. In the smaller

cities there is not the same strong feeling, but there should be. In any city with an associated charities, effort should not cease until the chamber of commerce, or board of trade, is in some way officially

connected with the work. So rapid has been the growth of this co-operation that it is often possible, in urging it, to cite cities which are nearby and which have developed it.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Department Editor

FEDERATION OF ARTS PROCEEDINGS

The National Academy of Art has published the proceedings of the convention held in Washington last May, at which the American Federation of Arts was formed. The two hundred page pamphlet gives in full the addresses, which were of much more than usual interest. As a group they give a comprehensive and hope-pervaded view of the present art situation in the United States such as one could not hope to find elsewhere in equally convenient form.

A NEW ALLY

Very significant is the news that in Massachusetts the interurban electric roads have offered to assist the state in fighting forest fires—not from sudden love of the state, nor from fear of property damage; but because their directors realize that the prosperity of the roads largely depends on the beauty of the scenery through which they pass. The head of the controlling investment company took the matter up with the state forester, showed how helpful the companies might be, learned how welcome their aid would be, and issued orders to the managers of the controlled lines. With the companies concluding that beauty pays so well that they will fight for its protection, there opens a large and interesting field of undertaking and co-operation.

PITTSBURGH'S PARKS TO BE USEFUL

It is announced that Mayor Magee of Pittsburgh has made up his mind that the social service of the city parks is nothing like as great as it ought to be. As a step toward increasing their popular usefulness, he has made an arrangement by which the street railroad company is to run spurs into sections of the larger parks, so that the people can reach without a long walk those picnic and ball grounds, tennis courts, and other recreative features which it is proposed to develop. One of the investigators of the Pittsburgh Survey called attention to this serious delinquency in the Pittsburgh parks, which are very beautiful if one has

the means to drive about them; and it is good to note that the mayor and Director Armstrong of the Department of Public Works are co-operating effectively to overcome the lack, turning to the matter with real interest and enthusiasm. In an industrial city parks perform an active social, as distinguished from a simply aesthetic, service.

KNOXVILLE WOMEN

The officers of the Park Association of Knoxville, Tenn., are women, but their effort is as wide as the community for their motto is, "The public good, health and happiness." Auxiliary to the Park Association are civic improvement societies in the several wards, the whole making an unusual and interesting organization. An attractive little leaflet giving the by-laws, etc., calls attention on the title page to the fact that the organization "in co-operation with the municipal government" is working for a city beautiful. That is an attitude which civic improvement societies ought always to try to take. To find it assumed by a women's organization reflects credit on both the municipal administration and the women. From a list of twenty suggestions to the public, which are printed in the pamphlet, the following may be quoted:

"Pull down your fence. The city will haul it away and keep off the cows. If you can't be induced to part with it, fix it up and paint it.

"Wherever the ground shows bare, plant something green in it.

"Exercise the same supervision over your sidewalk as over your front yard. Sidewalks are the index of the kind of people inside."

ABANDONING BILLBOARDS

From far away little Honolulu there comes a bit of billboard news that perhaps has broad significance and promise. Hackfield and Company, Ltd., the dominating mercantile establishment in the islands, and the largest patrons of the bill posters, has decided to discontinue all billboard advertising. In a newspaper interview, the man-

ager declares that the step has been under advisement for some time. He says: "There are several reasons for this departure, one of which is our satisfaction with the results attained through the newspapers. I realize, too, that there is a growing opposition to out-of-doors publicity, such as billboards, in a locality where nature has done so much to make everything beautiful. The dissatisfaction has gone so far as to partake of the flavor of a boycott. I do not mean that this is yet serious; but as far as it concerns our business, we do not mean that it shall be. We believe that the dislike of this style of advertising felt by many persons should have consideration. Civic pride also has arisen, here as on the mainland. Beginning August 1, billboard advertising is discontinued by this firm."

WATCHFUL WOMEN

The lately issued report of the Women's Health Protective Association of New York is a triennial. As the report states, the work of the association cannot be confined within a fixed period. The task it undertakes may run from month to month or from one year into another, so that there is no special advantage in a strictly annual report. The association's method of procedure, as outlined in the report, should be quoted: The active membership is divided into committees. When a complaint is received by the association it is sent to the chairman under whose committee work the complaint comes, and it is the duty of that officer to have the matter investigated and when assured that the complaint is justifiable to report it to the corresponding secretary, she being the duly accredited officer of the association. It is then the duty of this officer to forward the complaint to the municipal department controlling the nuisance. If the nuisance is serious, the president of the association is notified, and she selects a committee to wait upon the proper official and secure his aid in abating or removing it as quickly as possible. No individual member takes action on her own account, and the result of no investigation is made public until the city official has been notified. This method has secured the confidence of the officials, and all communications from the association receive prompt and courteous attention. Further, the association "does not consider politics in its work, but looks to the men at the heads of the various departments for the best service for the public good." Among the subjects which the association has taken up are street cleaning, school hygiene, tree planting, parks and playgrounds, expectoration in cars, overcrowding of cars, pure food, etc.

PLAYGROUND NOTES

With the broad sweep of the playground movement, items on that subject accumulate rapidly. Some are very interesting. In the little Front street playground in Rochester, which, hemmed in by tall buildings, has only 500 feet of space—though 900 children a week find heaven there—a field day was celebrated in mid-summer, to observe the smallest playground's second birthday. The longest race could be only thirty yards, but the contest was none the less exciting, nor the victory less glorious, for that. Badges and buttons were worn with pride; the place was gay with Chinese lanterns, the mayor was present for a long time both afternoon and evening—for Rochester's mayor has shown in many official acts his love for little children; and the letter carriers' band discoursed sweet music—no simpler words will do, for Front street has possibly never had music before, outside the mission and the saloons. But in one respect, Rochester's little Front street playground has probably an advantage over any other playground in the United States. One of the great brick buildings that bounds it is a chewing gum factory, and sometimes—Oh, whisper the joyous tidings with trembling breath—sometimes sticks of gum are thrown freely out of the window for the children. No really perfect playground can lack a gum factory for one of its boundaries. In Trenton the interest of the Sunday schools was enlisted in the playground movement, and so was gained an unusual but not inappropriate source of support. For a membership campaign conducted in Trenton for the local association a great clock was placed on the façade of the City Hall, to show the progress of the member-getting. In Louisville, the Recreation League issued an appeal in the form of a lawyer's brief. The cover read:

In the Court of Public Opinion.
 Appeal of the Children versus the City.
 Brief for the Children.
 The Recreation League, Counsel.

The brief, after describing Louisville, says, eloquently: "Into this dread place of bricks and stones and iron a quarter of a million men go down to destroy themselves in the labor of living, to find death in the pursuit of life, striving and failing, and striving again; swarming feverishly in and out of their smoking burrows, pursued by care and want, set about with the hundred dangers



BABY-SAVING IN A ROCHESTER PLAYGROUND.

of the clanging mechanism in which they toil, plucking from this iron nettle a few pale flowers of pleasure, reproducing their kind to take, after them, this grim inheritance, received by them from their fathers. In this banging boiler shop of a world a hundred thousand children drink in, with the thirsty eyes and ears of youth, the glories of the universe. These step-children of the city are put out to the dry nursing of the brick-paved yard, the granite street and the stale waters of the gutter, while some are, all prematurely, swallowed in the insatiate maw of commerce. Does the city owe them something more than this? Cannot trade pause a moment to hear them? Are they less than bank clearings and dividends?"

This department will risk the guess that the children's case was won.

MORE PLAYGROUND ITEMS

In reviewing improvement topics of the summer months, there is temptation to write a great deal about playgrounds—so conspicuous is the part they play in municipal betterment during hot weather. Perhaps no better idea of the widening reach of the movement can be given than by noting that of two newspaper clippings before

the writer at the moment, one tells of the establishment of a well equipped playground for the children who live in the St. Louis poorhouse, and the other of the establishment of one at Colon, on the Isthmus of Panama. The Colon government, it is said, is to appoint a play director, music is to be furnished by the municipal band, and the equipment was selected from photographs submitted by the Playground Association of America. The poorhouse children's playground has been secured largely through the efforts of a clergyman and of the St. Louis women's clubs. Cleveland's playgrounds, not content to stop at a model municipal government officered by children, undertook this summer to establish a national government. Each playground elected its mayor and council, and appointed a police and fire department; but many would-be office holders were still without jobs—which was not at all a model arrangement. So from the playground municipalities delegates were sent to a "national" convention at which president and vice-president were elected. There also was a congress; but the first session of that was pretty nearly broken up by an untimely fire alarm. The whole congress was on the way to the fire when the director appeared, and the repre-

sentatives realized that being senators and congressmen and having to stay in session when you wanted to be somewhere else was not all it was cracked up to be—even if it was just like the real Congress in Washington. At that session the house elected a speaker. Later the congress made laws, which, typewritten and duly posted in all the playgrounds, became their rule of conduct. At Columbus, Ohio, a feature of the playground activity, it seems, is the annual sandpile party. In a long bed of sand there are buried treasures, for which the children are allowed to "lunge." The treasures con-

sist of tools, work-boxes, story-books and toys.

TOWN PLANNING NEWS

The town planning news of the last month includes the appearance in pamphlet of a brief but suggestive report for the little town of Madison, N. J.; the appearance in elaborate and beautiful form of a report prepared some time ago for Los Angeles, and the authorization by the commission government of Des Moines of a study for that city, that it may be made a capital worthy of a great state.

COMMUNICATIONS

HOME vs. INSTITUTION

TO THE EDITOR:

I think that the managers of institutions for children which are supported by endowment funds, and private benefactions, have a just cause of complaint against those who are engaged in the business of publicity, because of a denial of opportunity to present reasons for the existence and necessity of their institutions.

In calling the White House Conference President Roosevelt did not assume the proper attitude of a non-partisan, but publicly declared his faith in the Massachusetts plan for dealing with dependent children.

As a result of this stand, and because of the opinions of the promoters of the conference, such institutions as Girard College, the Rose Orphan Home of Terre Haute, Indiana, and this institution, were purposely omitted from the invitation list, and ignored in the work of the conference. Following up the action at Washington, the same promoters appeared at the national conference at Buffalo, and Mr. West, the secretary of the White House Conference proceeded to criticize the managers of institution homes for children because they did not attend conferences. It was my privilege and pleasure to call him down on this, and prove that the omission of such institutions as I have named was intentional. I have read the discussions of the White House Conference with close interest, and I fail to find anywhere any exposition of the proper and best work which such institutions as this may do in order to properly co-ordinate their work with that of the state public schools for dependent children, and the children's home finding societies.

It is certainly proper that those who think they have a word of advice to give concerning work with and for children, and who are qualified by experience to give it, should have an opportunity, and yet I have failed to see any exposition of the service which is being rendered by private institutional charity and which is not being rendered by public institutions, or children's

home finding societies. All encouragement to philanthropists to continue to build and endow such institutions has apparently ceased, and the attitude of the home finding people is one of distinct antagonism.

Recently in an official publication of the national society there appeared an article containing a rehash of the threadbare proposition, "A poor home is better than a good institution."

The writer, a lady in service in Pittsburgh, was commended for her able presentation, and its value affirmed because of her ability to speak from knowledge. I wrote her a mild remonstrance against such an assertion, and asked her authority. She replied that she had not had any personal experience, but quoted from the sayings of the editor of the very publication which used her contribution in the manner stated. You cannot wonder that some of us are getting quite disgusted with the self-admiration society business, and are longing for open columns, and free platforms. I appreciate the difficulty of finding room for discussion, or criticism. There ought not to be any difficulty about giving space for fair descriptions of work.

C. E. FAULKNER.

Washburn Memorial Orphan Asylum, Minneapolis, Minn.

WHERE POLICEWOMEN ABOUND

TO THE EDITOR:

An article in THE SURVEY for August 14 called attention to the appointment of "policewomen in Portland and Seattle," and raised the question "if there were others?" So I pass on such information as I have received in this line.

Miss Josie Sullivan is a member of the police force in Chicago. The chief of police in that city consulted the corporation counsel, who decided that there is nothing in statute law or city ordinance that would exclude women from such service.

In Atlanta, Ga., Mrs. Hattie Barnett is a member of the detective force, and is said

to prove a very desirable acquisition. She says, "My aim is to keep my work on the square and my conscience as clean as any minister's in the city." Last January Miss Fannie Bixby, a graduate of Wellesley, and one of the wealthiest girls in California, became a policewoman. The *Los Angeles Times* speaks of her appointment as deputy of a Long Beach constable, in this way: "After her graduation she was not content to be merely a society girl. She first undertook the career of an artist, but later became interested in the work of helping unfortunate girls until she had become a veritable little sister of the poor. After taking the oath of office she received her star. It will be the only jewel that she wears."

In Bayonne, N. J., there has been an earnest effort for the appointment of police-women, because of the very apparent need.

In St. Louis the need was acutely felt, when the story became known of the young girl arrested at midnight and taken from her bed and forced to dress in the presence of the police, and who was afterward proved innocent. The outrage of such an experience will never be effaced from her life.

The need of women officers in connection with care of women and children is being widely recognized. Mrs. McCulloch, "magistrate and judge" in Evanston, Ill., is demonstrating the wisdom of such appointments. From the province of Quebec, Canada, comes report of efforts to obtain women inspectors for public institutions, and other officers.

Similar reports are received from other countries, and the success of a woman jailer in Switzerland is interesting and suggestive reading.

J. K. BARNEY.

Providence, R. I.

JOTTINGS

Federation of Roumanian Jews.—Approval has been granted to the incorporation of the Alliance of Roumanian Jews of the United States whose headquarters are at 93 Rivington street, New York city. "The object of the organization is to unite all Roumanian societies and institutions, to represent and protect their interests, to discourage pauperism and to encourage the pursuit of useful handicrafts. The immediate object of the alliance is to establish outside the city limits a home for the aged and infirm. It is proposed to enlist every Roumanian Jew in the United States in the movement so as to have as complete a federation as possible.

A Tent Colony for Queens County.—An interesting experiment has been started in Queens county, N. Y., by Daniel W. Blumenthal. It is a movement for free tent homes on unused acreage lands for tenement dwellers during the summer months. Mr. Blumenthal has offered six and one-half acres of his own at College Point, Long Island, and opened the fund necessary to purchase tents with a contribution of \$100. He is endeavoring to get landowners in Kings and Queens counties to co-operate with him in time to put the plan into operation next summer.

Italians Invade the East Side.—It is leaving the East Side, New York, to have so many Italians transferring their field of operations eastward across the Bowery. They are transforming the dull and colorless blocks filled with delicatessen shops and tired looking vegetable carts with half spoiled produce, into lanes of color and freshness. The dietary of the Jewish household is broadening, too, with the new kinds of vegetables that the Italian brings with him. Jewish housewives who knew not the joys of salads nor the succulence of fresh squash are learning to buy these adjuncts to the household

menu and to cook them. The Italian brings to the city dweller many new varieties of vegetables and salads and in introducing them at cheap prices he is doing a real service all over the city but especially for the East Side with its predilection for dried meats and preserves to the exclusion of the healthful greens.

1,800 Deserted Wives.—The family desertion bureau of the Educational Alliance, New York, closed its initial year last spring, with a record of having brought to a conclusion more than 1,300 of the 1,816 cases referred to it. The bureau has secured the hearty co-operation of organized charity all over the United States in following up and prosecuting cases, of the United Hebrew Charities of New York in furnishing relief to destitute families and in furnishing transportation for families to join husbands found and brought to terms in other cities. The *Jewish Daily News* and *Forward*, said to be the two most widely read Yiddish papers in America, have helped by printing pictures and descriptions of deserters twice a week. Such publicity has had a deterrent effect as well as helped locate deserters. Hard times have greatly increased family desertion, the number of complaints in some recent months being almost double the number two years ago.

The bureau has found the district attorney's office disinclined to prosecute and follow up desertion cases referred to it since the offense was made a felony. Action has accordingly been brought in other states so far as possible, a long distance sort of prosecution made possible by the co-operation of charitable societies.

Open Air Lectures in St. Louis.—So popular have the open air tuberculosis lectures in St. Louis become that a proprietor of a moving picture show recently entered for-

mal protest against them on the ground that they were ruining his business.

Grand Rapids Lodging Houses.—John Ihlder, in the third monthly report of the Municipal Affairs Committee of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade, gives an interesting example of the usefulness of such an organization. One of the philanthropic societies of the city asked the Social Welfare Committee (a sub-committee) for an expression of opinion on the advisability of establishing a cheap lodging house for men. An investigating committee was appointed, which visited fourteen lodging houses and found some of them a menace both morally and physically, while others scrupulously provided clean lodgings at twenty-five cents a night. The general fault found lay in unsanitary ventilation of closets, utterly bad bathing facilities and insufficient fire-escapes. On this showing, the committee reached the conclusion that there was no need for a new lodging house, a project which would involve an initial outlay of \$6,000 or more, but that there was decided need for bringing existing lodgings up to standards of sanitary decency and comfort. In this way, ten times the number of lodgers could be benefited than would profit by the erection of even a very large establishment. To this end, a special committee has been appointed to submit recommendations to the Common Council.

Prevention of Infant Mortality.—The American Academy of Medicine announces a Conference on Prevention of Infant Mortality, to be held in New Haven, Conn., November 11 and 12. The executive committee of the conference follows: Dr. George Blumer, John Slade Ely, professor of the theory and practice of medicine, Yale Medical School; Dr. F. H. Gerrish, Portland, Me.; Dr. Donly C. Hawley, Burlington, Vt.; Dr. Helen C. Putnam, chairman, Providence, R. I.; Dr. J. Madison Taylor, Philadelphia; the president, *ex officio*, the secretary, *ex officio*.

Buffalo Social Workers Move.—John R. Howard, who for four years has been head worker at Welcome Hall, one of Buffalo's leading settlements, went to Philadelphia on September 1, to take charge of Starr Center. His brother, Carrington Howard, now field secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, goes in October to the Children's Aid Society in Boston.

An Old East Side Church's New Building.—The Church of the Sea and Land, one of the oldest churches serving New York's lower East Side, is erecting a \$40,000 church house, three stories high, with gymnasium, roof gardens, club rooms and resident floors. The building should prove an important addition to the centers for the neighborhood work on Henry street. The money was in part contributed by neighborhood people. Russell S. Gregory is now pastor of the church, succeeding Orrin G. Cocks who has been ap-

pointed secretary of the graduate committee of the Intercollegiate Branch of the New York city Y. M. C. A.

Canadian Tuberculosis Commission.—The Canadian Royal Commission of the Province of Quebec which will make inquiries concerning the practical methods of combating the spread of tuberculosis, has been appointed. Its members are: Dr. E. Persillier Lachapelle, Dr. J. George Adami, Thomas G. Roddick, the Honorable James J. Guerin, Dr. J. Edmond Dube, Dr. Elzear Pelletier, Joseph Lesperance, Charles M. Holt, King's Counsel, and Jeffrey Burland of Montreal; Dr. Michael Ahern, Charles R. Paquin, Dr. Arthur Simard and Dr. Arthur Rousseau of the city of Quebec; and Dr. Bourgeois, of the city of Three Rivers. Dr. E. Persillier Lachapelle is the president of the commission, and Dr. C. N. Valin of Montreal, secretary.

Millions of Pages on Tuberculosis.—Some idea of the magnitude of the International Congress on Tuberculosis held a year ago in Washington, may be gained from the size of its proceedings now being distributed.

Seven thousand sets of eight volumes each have been printed, comprising 56,000 books and over 35,000,000 pages. The shipping weight of these volumes is seventy-five tons. If arranged in a single row on a book shelf, it would take 8,750 feet of shelving to hold them. They are printed in English, German, French and Spanish.

The great bulk of the volumes is distributed in the United States at a cost of \$5,000. Only 584 sets being sent to foreign countries which are represented, however, by thirty-three different nations and states. The Smithsonian Institute has assumed the responsibility for the foreign distribution.

Two Hospitals for Rochester.—It looks as if two public hospitals will be established in or near Rochester, N. Y. Early in the year the City Council appropriated \$30,000 for a hospital for advanced tuberculosis cases, there being already one for patients in the incipient stages of the disease. A site for the new institution is under consideration and plans for it have been drawn. The county supervisors, unable to combine with the city, have almost decided to build a hospital of their own. They have advertised for a site. These accommodations and the day camp of the Rochester Health Association, should materially help solve Monroe county's tuberculosis problem.

Can Still Spit in Georgia.—By only five votes, a bill prohibiting spitting in enclosed places, and on sidewalks and cars, and providing a penalty for violation, was recently defeated in the Georgia Legislature. One member who opposed the bill, said he was in favor of spending money to stamp out tuberculosis, but he was opposed to using the machinery of the law to punish a man who happened to miss the spittoon.

Gift of Sanatorium for Florida.—Florida will have a state tuberculosis sanatorium at less expense than any other state where such an institution has been provided this year. This is due to the generosity of Dr. John E. Ennis, who has offered the grounds and buildings of his sanatorium at Narcoossee to the state on condition that they be maintained as a state tuberculosis sanatorium. While the offer has not yet been accepted, it is understood that it will be.

At the last session the Florida Legislature permitted the establishment of a state sanatorium by the State Board of Health, but did not make any definite appropriation for it, it being understood that Dr. Ennis's institution would be used for this purpose. The state will enlarge the capacity of the buildings which now provide for only twelve beds. They are situated in an attractive grove of over one hundred acres.

The Sunshine Home and Sanatorium was started by Dr. Ennis in 1906. It was partially supported for a time by the *Tribune* Sunshine Society of New York.

Federated Jewish Charities, Boston.—The Federated Jewish Charities of Boston report expenditures of \$78,000 for the year just ended against \$59,000 last year. Among the improvements noted are the following:

The removal of the Hebrew Industrial School and the Immigrant Aid Society to their new quarters; the forming of a Legal Aid Committee; the centralization of all summer work under one committee; and the successful efforts in obtaining an immigration station.

The superintendent calls attention to the great increase in tuberculosis and also in immorality and insanity among Jews of Boston. He states that at least \$100,000 ought to be raised annually and expended by the Federated Jewish Charities.

J. Byron Deacon Goes to the Pennsylvania Anti-Tuberculosis Society.—J. Byron Deacon, has resigned the superintendency of the Charity Organization Society of Paterson, N. J., to become executive secretary of the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. Mr. Deacon is a graduate of the New York School of Philanthropy, and has been in Paterson for a year and a half. During that time the work of the Paterson society has been increased, both in the work with destitute families and in the campaign against tuberculosis. The financial support of the society gained so largely that it was possible to increase the staff from one to four.

Tuberculosis Displays at County Fairs.—The State Charities Aid Association of New York announces that it is preparing six exhibitions on the prevention of tuberculosis to be shown this year at forty-two county fairs and the state fair at Syracuse.

The first exhibitions are to be sent from New York city August 10. They are similar to those shown at fairs last year, for which there was a constant demand during the winter. Before the repairs and alterations could be started, it was necessary to recall exhibitions which had been sent to Texas, Porto Rico, Buffalo and elsewhere. Over 1,000,000 persons attended the exhibits last year. The announcement concerning them has been printed in all the premium books, 250,000 of which are printed and sent out in advance. Graduate students of Columbia University prepared by a special course of lectures will manage and demonstrate at the fairs. Tennessee, Michigan, West Virginia, Kansas, Montana, and other states are following the lead of the State Charities Aid Association.

Cincinnati's "Death Calendar."—The Cincinnati Anti-Tuberculosis League has issued a calendar showing the number of deaths from tuberculosis in that city on each day of 1908. The total was 942. The largest number in any one month, 136, occurred in March, and the largest on any one day, 10, on March 28. The calendar is attractively printed in red and black figures on a small sheet, and bears this interesting query and comment at the bottom: "If 942 mules died in a year of a preventable infectious disease, what would the city do? But these are only human beings, who have no money value."

A Fresh Air Strike.—Fifty weavers employed in the Meridian, Miss., cotton mills, struck and refused to work because the management refused a request that the windows be kept open. The mill officials declared that the open windows interfered with the operation of the humidifiers.

Dr. Rembert Resigns.—Dr. G. W. F. Rembert, who for two years has been superintendent of the Association Sanatorium at Louisville, Ky., has resigned to take up private practice in the South. Dr. Rembert came to Kentucky on the opening of the Association Sanatorium, from the Gaylord Farm Sanatorium in Connecticut. His resignation takes effect August. His successor has not yet been chosen.

Another Fraternal Sanatorium.—The Workmen's Circle, of New York city, a Jewish socialist insurance association, with a membership of 27,000, and operating in twenty-eight states has applied to Commissioner of Health Porter for authority to establish a tuberculosis sanatorium at Liberty, Sullivan county, for the benefit of its members.

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Proper Treatment of Floors a Preventive of Disease.

HOW TO KEEP FLOORS FREE FROM DUST.

THAT public measures for the suppression of dust are absolutely necessary to public health is the contention of J. Crinon, who writes on "The War with Dust," in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris). Eminent American authorities concur in this opinion that dust is responsible for the transmission of disease, and that in schools, hospitals, stores and public buildings, where people are wont to assemble, the danger of dust-poisoning is greatest.

How, then, shall we get rid of dust? Surely not by dry sweeping, for to quote from the article by M. Crinon—"Dry sweeping must be rejected as very dangerous; it displaces the dust, raises it into the air, without doing any good. It ought not to be permitted at all."

The ideal method of reducing dust to a minimum is to treat floors with a preparation that will catch and hold all dust particles and germs so that they may be swept up and collected, without raising any of the dust into the air where it could circulate.

Of course proper ventilation is a material aid in reducing the amount of circulating dust, but the question of eliminating dust entirely has not as yet been given the attention it rightly deserves—and the attention that will be given it as soon as the public becomes more fully informed as to its dangers.

It is a fact that there is an effective dust preventive at hand, one which has been adopted and successfully used in thousands of schools and colleges, hospitals and sanitariums, stores, offices and public buildings. This remedy is Standard Floor Dressing.

Under old conditions the dust was swept into the air, only to settle down again, upon desks, tables, chairs and other furniture from which it must be removed by dusting, resulting in much of it circulating through the air and again settling on the floor, to be swept up again, and so on indefinitely.

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That it accomplishes both purposes has been proven by actual tests made by eminent bacteriological authorities. To quote figures from an actual report, it has been shown that from an untreated floor surface of 100 square feet over 38 million living organisms were found. In the same space which has been treated with Standard Floor Dressing, 15,734,400,000 were found. After 36 hours an examination showed but 393 million living germs. In other words, while only 2½% of the total organisms caught lived until the dust was analyzed, 97½% were killed.

This test shows conclusively that the treated floor caught and held over four hundred times the number of germs found on the untreated floor; in the case of the latter the balance were circulating through the air.

With these facts in favor of Standard Floor Dressing and in view of the strenuous efforts of all to combat the transmission of disease, what more

simple and effective method of germ destruction could be found than in treating all public wooden floors with this preparation?

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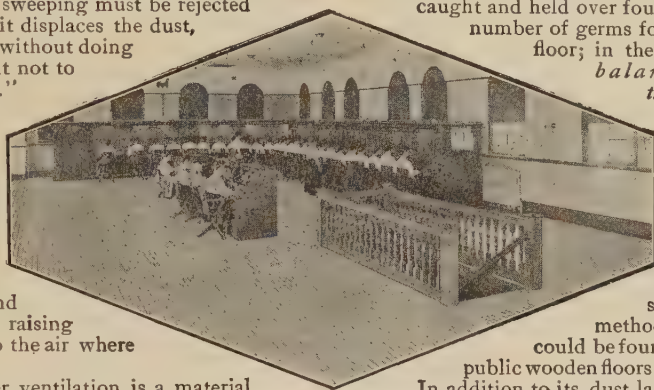
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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY
PUBLISHED BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, President; OTTO T. BANNARD, Vice-President; J. P. MORGAN, Treasurer; EDWARD T. DEVINE, General Secretary

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Herbert D. Pease's New Appointment.—Dr. Herbert D. Pease, recently director of the State Hygienic Laboratory, New York State Department of Health, has become director of their Bacteriological Department of the Lederle Laboratories.

School of Philanthropy to Open Its Academic Year, 1909-10.—The New York School of Philanthropy opens its academic year 1909-10 on Monday evening, September 27, at 8 o'clock. Robert W. de Forest will preside and I. Dana Durand, director of the Census, Washington, D. C., will deliver an address on The Importance of Accurate Census Statistics for Social Workers and How They May Be Obtained. The Alumni Association of the school will hold an informal reception after the meeting.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

TEN-HOUR LAW HELD UP IN ILLINOIS

Despite the ten-hour law enacted at last winter's session of the Illinois Legislature,¹ the working women of Illinois are still in the grip of that "freedom of contract" which for so many years has "protected" them from any lessening of their working hours. The ten-hour law has been declared unconstitutional by Judge Richard S. Tuthill, of the State Circuit Court in Chicago, and its operation suspended until the question of state constitutionality is decided by higher courts. The proceedings have brought out three things: a use of the injunction said to be unusual in connection with the labor law; a judicial decision which—at this stage of progress in industrial legislation and especially in view of the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the similar Oregon case²—public opinion in Chicago has promptly classed as benighted; and a legal document submitted by the manufacturer's attorneys which for bald confession of inadequate pay is likely to become classic. The latter is proving a formidable boomerang in rousing public sentiment, for it makes the statement that an experienced employe who has worked thirty-two consecutive years in a Chicago box factory is unable to earn enough in ten hours a day to support herself and one sister dependent upon her.

The order of Judge Tuthill enjoins State Factory Inspector Edgar T. Davies and State's Attorney John E. W. Wayman of Cook county from prosecuting the W. C. Ritchie Company, manufacturers of paper boxes, for violations of the ten-hour law. The order is based squarely and solely on the contention that the law is contrary to the constitutional guarantee of freedom of contract. Yet the Illinois law is an exact copy of the Oregon law, declared constitutional by the United States Supreme Court, in

a unanimous decision that the working hours of women may be restricted not only for the protection of their health but for the benefit of all in the state.

The injunction suspending the enforcement of the Illinois law throws upon the state officials the burden of carrying the question to a higher court, and during this delay wage-earning women are deprived of the advantage of the law. The process by which the constitutionality of labor laws has ordinarily been determined has been through an appeal by some one arrested for violation. This method threw upon the employer the burden of the appeal and left the law in operation until its constitutionality was determined. In general, however, injunction proceedings are defended by some of the best jurists as being a prompter method of deciding constitutionality than criminal proceedings.

The bill of complaint praying for the injunction was brought by the W. C. Ritchie Company and two employes, Dora Windeguth and Anna Kusserow. It contends that the ten-hour law will work irreparable damage to, all three. Back of the employer of the two women is the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, which furnishes counsel in the case, William Duff Haynie.

Dora Windeguth states that she has been employed by the Ritchie Company, or its predecessors, thirty-two consecutive years, having begun work at the age of thirteen. In that period she has learned the paper box business thoroughly, having passed through several departments, until now she works in that department in which "are manufactured shelf boxes, filing cases, strawboard shelf boxes, the assembling and lining of wooden shelf boxes, and the manufacture of suit boxes; and that said department wherein she works is the heaviest and most severe department in the whole paper box business, and the one which taxes the endurance of the employe most. That the average weight of the boxes in this department is three and one-half

¹ See *THE SURVEY* for July 3, 1909.

² See *Charities and The Commons* for March 14, 1908.

pounds and that it is impossible for a highly skilled workman to turn out more than four an hour; that they receive for the same four and sixty-two hundredths cents (4.62 cents) apiece, which is a fair and reasonable wage." It is further stated that "Dora Windeguth has worked on an average of three days a week overtime, and shows unto your honors that the regular hours in said factory are from 7:30 in the morning to 5 P. M., with one-half-hour for lunch, and that during the busy season employes must work extra from 6 P. M. to 9 P. M." She claims never to have noticed any ill effect from this work and that she "is considered today one of the most skilled workers in her department."

Anna Kusserow has been employed by the Ritchie Company sixteen years having entered its employ at the age of sixteen. Her experience as stated is practically the same as that of Dora Windeguth.

Dependent upon these two employes are, in one case, a sister, and, in the other case, a mother, father, sister and brother. Both declare that if they are not allowed to work more than ten hours a day they will be compelled to run into debt to maintain their households.

GOOD FACTORY CONDITIONS: LONG HOURS; LOW WAGES

The Ritchie Company, which seems to take pride in stating some of the welfare work it does in its factory, declares that the paper box business is one which has rush seasons, one of them being for the three months preceding the Christmas holidays. It contends that it has made efforts to secure additional employes but without success and, therefore, if its business is not to be irreparably damaged, it must work its employes for longer than ten hours a day.

The impression is prevalent among those in touch with the situation that the employers cannot hope for ultimate success in contesting the constitutionality of the law but that they have taken the "injunction route" to delay its operation until the fall rush season is over.

An appeal has been taken. Two Chi-

cago attorneys have volunteered their services in the case. It behooves the Illinois state factory inspector, Edgar J. Davies, to employ, as the attorney general of Oregon did in inviting the help of Louis D. Brandeis of Boston in the earlier case of *Muller vs. the state of Oregon*, the ablest counsel to be had in the country. Illinois restricted the hours of working women in 1893 to eight in twenty-four, but the law was declared unconstitutional by the Illinois Supreme Court. The Oregon decision and the legislation along this line adopted by other states and nations led to the enactment of the Illinois law known as the "girls' bill," which was approved June 15.

The first Chicago editorial to be published on the decision, that in the *Evening Post*, struck a satirical keynote when it said:

It must be a great comfort to the working women of Illinois to know that their interests are being so faithfully guarded by Dora Windeguth, Anna Kusserow and the W. C. Ritchie Company, paper-box manufacturers.

It is a blessed privilege indeed, that of "overtime," the very Beulah land, we understand from the Ritchie petition, of the woman who toils! Sweet is a twelve-hour day, but even sweeter is a thirteen or a fourteen, crowned with "supper money." There is a great zest and excitement about working after dark. The electric lights throw a brilliant glare over the shop that was dingy by daytime; the machines which hummed monotonously at noon now run into queer crescendos and diminuendos; cheeks that were pale are flushed and pretty; quitting time is far less boisterous.

And then there is the money consideration. What more natural, in a business community governed strictly by pecuniary ideals, that we should pay a certain deference to the pecuniary point of view of the employee? When Dora Windeguth, her employer at her elbow, says that she cannot earn enough in ten hours to live, our whole chivalry rises to her defence; let her work twelve hours then. We have always contended that nobody need starve in America.

It is interesting to reflect that while Dora's feudal forebears fought for "the right to work," it has been left for Dora's generation to fight for the right to work overtime. But there is still a chance—if all stick together—to save this state from the fate of Massachusetts, Oregon, Missouri, Washington and half a score of other commonwealths which, given the choice between healthy womanhood and cheap paper boxes, are now going without paper boxes.

The Chicago papers apparently, with-

out exception, have come out strongly in favor of the law.

Factory Inspector Davies declares that in the course of the regular work of his office in making inspections and enforcing the child labor law, he intends to keep information as to the employment of women longer than ten hours a day to use in prosecutions in the event that the law is declared constitutional.

THE FEDERATION OF JEWISH FARMERS

That the Jewish race is not to confine its activities in America to commercial pursuits is again made evident in the program of the First Annual Convention of the Federation of Jewish Farmers, to be held at the Educational Alliance, New York, during Succoth week, October 2 to 7.

The federation, which was organized with the object of improving the material and social position of Jewish farmers in America, shows signs of healthy growth. Eleven associations were represented at the organizing conference in New York city last January, and the number has increased to twenty-five.

The full significance of this little gathering of agriculturists on New York's East Side—their convention windows overlooking what is perhaps the most costly plot of grass in the world, Seward Park, will be missed by those who forget that the tendency of the Middle Ages was to keep the Jew from the fields and suppress his development in other ways. With increased liberties and opportunities, however, the earlier instincts are reviving and he may once more be able to show his innate power of application, foresight and imagination in the struggle for the fruits of the earth. That the Jew is possessed of all these, together with the most important virtue of patience, there is no room for doubt.

Success in the new undertaking would mean for one thing a possible relief from congestion in the large cities. It would mean a considerable addition to the annual income from the soil—and an addition that will tend to increase with the years, for the Jew, while sufficiently daring, has never been wasteful. His is not

the temperament that kills the "golden goose" for the sale of its eggs, nor will he impoverish and ruin his land for the sale of one or two seasons' bumper crops. Rather will he incline to nurse his acres and hand them over to his successors enriched and with increased producing powers.

Already the importance of the movement back to the land is being recognized, practically as well as sentimentally. There is the well-established Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society for the purpose of giving support in various ways; a labor bureau which sends Jewish immigrants out to the farmers; a course of lectures for the farmers; a number of free scholarships for their sons and daughters; a monthly agricultural paper in Yiddish, enabling the newcomer to keep abreast of the times in his chosen line without waiting until he has mastered English; advice and help in finding farmers; and last, but by no means least, financial assistance on reasonable terms. Such are the objects of this society, now in its tenth year.

An agricultural fair in the heart of New York's East Side will be held at the same time as the convention—open to the public day and evening. The State Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations of New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Massachusetts will send educational exhibits and arrange lectures. One of the subjects to be discussed will be the establishment of a central market house. Leading commission men will speak upon methods of shipping produce, the advantages of co-operative shipping and the like.

TO OBTAIN FOREIGN BIRTH CERTIFICATES

A valuable circular of information has just been published by the National Child Labor Committee for the use of parents, school principals, medical officers and philanthropic friends of such foreign born children as may be desirous of going to work, and unable to do so legally until they can produce a certificate of birth. Much careful work has been expended in making the directions clear and trustworthy. They are com-

piled by George A. Hall, secretary of the New York Child Labor Committee from special reports of the United States consuls furnished in response to a questionnaire of the State Department at the request of the National Child Labor Committee. Valuable assistance was rendered also by foreign consuls resident in New York. Most of the directions have been tested in the cases of New York children with satisfactory results.

There is a widespread belief that immigrant children would suffer hardship if all the states should adopt the proof-of-age requirements which are enforced in New York, chief among them being the certificate of birth. The present circular of information is intended to aid the immigrants in getting birth certificates from the old country for the children who were born there. Since a child cannot legally work for wages in New York before the fourteenth birthday, parents have abundant time in which to get this evidence.

The directions for obtaining birth certificates from Hungary, Spain, Roumania and Turkey emphasize anew the backwardness of our own nation as to the registration of births. Several of our states are still without laws requiring registration. Within the registration area enforcement is far from uniform.

Yet few duties of a board of health are easier of performance than enforcing the registration of births, by means of the following simple office routine, introduced in New York city by Dr. Ernst Lederle when he was commissioner of health. Whenever the death certificate of a child was filed with the Board of Health the records were searched for its birth certificate. In case none was on file, inquiry as to the physician or midwife responsible for the failure to file was made and, in case of children born in New York city, the penalty prescribed by law was enforced. The universal adoption of this simple item of office technique by boards of health throughout the United States would be of great value to the children of our nation. At present it is easier to obtain a birth certificate from Turkey than from some of the states of this republic.

Copies of the circular may be had on application to the National Child Labor Committee, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

NEED FOR OUTDOOR SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK

Tests recently made with tuberculin in the Sea Breeze Hospital, Coney Island, indicate that from twenty-five to thirty per cent of the children under ten years from the East Side of New York are infected with tuberculosis. The investigation was made under the auspices of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor at the suggestion of W. H. Maxwell, superintendent of city schools, and Dr. John W. Brannan, president of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals.

The children were those taken on one-day excursions by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Up to the middle of August 728, 381 boys and 347 girls, had been physically examined and tested for tuberculosis. Of the total who received the tuberculin 205, or 28.1 per cent, showed a positive reaction. The percentage of reaction among the girls was much higher than among the boys, being 35.1 per cent, as against 21.7.

These tests seem to emphasize the fact that New York needs outdoor schools for its tuberculous children. At the present time, as stated in *THE SURVEY*, there are only three such schools in Greater New York, all semi-private. The tests also verify figures obtained in Paris, Vienna, Edinburgh, Stockholm and Boston as to the relative frequency of tuberculosis among small children.

ONE WAY TO SETTLE LABOR TROUBLES

ELIZABETH G. EVANS

Boston

With the tragedies of McKee's Rocks fresh in mind illustrating the barbarity of present methods of settling our labor troubles, the article of Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, in the September number of *McClure's*, is peculiarly timely. The

Best Way to Prevent Industrial Warfare is the title under which is described the working of the industrial disputes investigation act of Canada which became law on March 22, 1907. This act had the benefit of earlier experiments in a similar line in Australia and New Zealand, and is characterized by President Eliot as "the best piece of legislation in the world for the prevention and settlement of lockouts and strikes."

The chief feature of the act is the requirement that, when any dispute arises in any industry known as a public utility, including mines, it shall be illegal to resort to either a strike or a lockout until matters in dispute have been made the subject of an investigation by a board of conciliation and investigation, which shall be established under specified rules. Either party to a dispute may apply to the minister of labor for the appointment of an investigating board, and each party may nominate one member of the same, these two to select the third member and chairman. Should either party fail to nominate, or should the first two nominees fail to agree upon the third member, the vacant place shall be filled by nomination of the minister of labor. Thus both employers and employes can count upon investigation by a board two members of which will be well informed as to the facts of the case at issue,—therein possessing a great advantage over any standing board. No power is conferred on the board to enforce its decisions. Its findings are simply published throughout the dominion,—the act thus absolutely abandoning arbitration, and relying "exclusively on discussion, conciliation, publicity and public opinion."

In the two years during which the workings of the act were examined, fifty-five applications had been received for the creation of an investigating board. In six cases the difficulty was settled during the discussion arising out of the application or while the board was in process of formation, these cases of prompt settlement of the dispute being manifestly due, as President Eliot believes, to the influence of the act,—that is, to the "prospect of complete publicity with regard to the causes of the dispute and the

claims of the disputants." In all but two of the fifty-five applications, the recommendations of the board were accepted, while in the two cases where a strike ensued, the findings of the board were not unanimous. In both of these cases, however, the strikers ultimately returned to work upon the terms recommended by the majority of the board.

It is significant that of the fifty-five applications for an investigation, forty-six were made by the employes and two by employes and employers alike; while in only seven cases was an investigation asked on the sole initiative of the employers. These figures sufficiently demonstrate the satisfaction of employes with the workings of the act, which, moreover, has been endorsed by the Trade and Labor Congress at each session held since its enactment. That employers should be slow to invoke a public investigation, with the evil tradition behind them that it is for them to dictate terms to their employes, that their business is a private matter with whose management the public has no concern, is as one might expect. Nevertheless, in not a single instance did they refuse to accept the recommendations of the board. And, as President Eliot rightly remarks, "they must have taken satisfaction in the fact that interruption of service to the public was prevented in fifty-three cases out of fifty-five."

An important principle which is recognized by the act is that industries not technically classed as public utilities may nevertheless be really public affairs. And while the act is compulsory only in regard to public utilities and mines, it may be invoked by any other industry, provided a request for the appointment of an investigating board is preferred by both parties. Of the fifty-five requests for an investigating board, two were proffered by private industries.

It is to be noted that the act explicitly guarantees the right of both employers to decree a lockout and of employes to strike. What is prohibited is a sudden blow, on either side. An interval of at least some weeks must elapse before work may be stopped. And during this interval "there is time for passions to

cool and for the cost of war to be counted by both parties. The interests of the public may also get some sort of effective expression during this interval; and when the report of the board is thoroughly published in accordance with the provisions of the act, public opinion, being well informed, usually expresses itself with clearness and force." Indeed, "the stout assertion that the public has a right to know about the causes of industrial disputes," President Eliot considers to be "incidentally one of the most valuable features of the act."

So effective has the industrial disputes act proved, that, "since its enactment in March, 1907, the dominion has known no cessation in the continuation of any of its great agencies of communication,—steam railways, electric railways, telegraph and telephone lines," while tens of thousands of working men have been saved the hard alternative of submitting to what they consider grievances or undergoing the certain hardships entailed on themselves and their families by a strike.

As to the applicability of a similar law to this country, President Eliot believes that the difficulties are by no means insuperable. In default of a central authority corresponding to the Canadian minister of labor, the several states, he suggests, might act through the labor commissioner or the governor, while in an industrial dispute which extends beyond the limits of a single state, some combination of state officials could probably be contrived to meet the necessities of the case. A particular interest attaches to this suggestion for joint action by states, in that it is the third of the kind that has been put forth in current publications within as many months,—Charles McCarthy¹ of Wisconsin having proffered a similar thought with a view to securing uniform industrial legislation in competing states, while John L. Matthews² suggests joint action by contiguous states for the development of water power.

These various suggestions it is hoped may fall on fertile ground. The people of the United States should not submit

indefinitely to the inhibitions entailed in so many directions by their federal constitution. Nor should they seek an escape by lodging too much power at Washington. Some other way must be found to co-ordinate the wider needs of the community, to forward those common ends the fulfilment of which are essential in a progressive nation.

THE PROTESTANT CHURCH AND THE IMMIGRANT¹

GAYLORD S. WHITE

New York

So far as the self-respecting working-folk who are not of the recent immigrant class are concerned, the Protestant branch of the Christian church, in my estimation, has bungled sadly in her efforts to win them. The misconceived dependent mission, cheap and unattractive, but "good enough for the poor," and fitted out with a pastor to match, was doomed to failure. But the church has taken to heart the lessons of her failure in this direction and new and more promising measures are being rapidly adopted. And now the church is confronting still more perplexing problems. Statistics are not wanting to prove that the Protestant church, tested by the results she considers of prime importance—the accession of members,—has fallen seriously behind in the city of New York. One reason assigned by the statistician of the churches is the rapid influx of Jews and Italians into certain sections of the city. And anyone who is at all familiar with the situation knows that the Protestant Christianity is not making headway in the congested foreign districts. To those who believe that Christianity is a universal religion, that it is capable of meeting the needs of every race in every clime, this failure on the part of the church must appear as singular as it is deplorable. And yet can we

¹ This is the third of a series of signed editorials on the Church and Social Reform. The first was by Jeffrey R. Brackett and appeared in the issue of THE SURVEY of August 7. The second was by John Haynes Holmes and appeared in the issue of September 4.

¹ THE SURVEY, August 21, page 696.

² Hampton's Magazine, June, page 772.

wonder at it when we stop to consider what sort of an interpretation the message of Jesus has received in both the Protestant and Catholic branches of the church? Bigotry, oppression, misunderstanding, intolerance, deceit, injustice, are words which we should have frequent occasion to use if we were to describe the spirit and practice of the Christian church in her relations both to the Jews and, generally speaking, to the working classes of all nations. Is it surprising that prejudice against the church has resulted? The Christianity which Jesus set forth is quite another thing from that which has often been set forth by the church; and it is the latter which has failed.

What we now need, then, is to get men to listen to the message of Jesus. Without attempting to enter upon a discussion of that message, it may be said at least to contain the teaching that God is the loving Father of all men and that he is seeking to establish in the earth a kingdom—a new social order in which justice and love shall control and men shall live as brothers should. And I believe that multitudes of men—Jews and Gentiles—are ready to hear the prophet who can restate this message in a language they can understand. By this I mean in terms and phrases which would not have a perverted meaning to their minds due to the prevalent misunderstanding of the true aim of the Christian religion. This restatement of Christian truth in terms indicated by the hearer's mental concepts and point of view, in order that every man may hear the message in his own language, is the modern Pentecostal gift of tongues for which we urgently need a fresh outpouring of the Spirit.

In her efforts in behalf of alien races in our city population, the Protestant church has placed proselytizing above prophesying. A little more bigotry and intolerance have been the chief result. The attempt to proselytize from other faiths is one thing; the desire to share your view of the truth—to seek to have others come out into the clearest light and the largest liberty—is a very different thing. I cannot bring myself to sympathize with the sort of Christian worker

who rejoices more over one convert to Protestant Christianity than over the ninety-and-nine just persons of a different variety of the faith, who need no conversion but are serving God faithfully after the manner of their fathers. Why should we seek to persuade the brother of some ancient faith to renounce pretty much all that he has been taught to hold sacred and become the particular sort of Methodist or Baptist or other sectarian Protestant that we happen to be? The thing, I take it, that the Christian should regard as all-important and that he may rightly seek by every honorable means to accomplish, is to get men—whether they be Jews, Italians, Hottentots, Yankees or what not—to learn to look at life as Jesus looked at it. If within the hearts of men we can succeed in stirring love to God as Father and to men as brothers, and if they will honestly strive to reorganize their lives on the basis of this twofold relationship, need we require much more? The time has come, in my judgment, when Christians may be gratified, if not satisfied, with results among certain classes of our population different, not so much in essential character as in formal expression, from the results they have been accustomed to regard as satisfactory.

When it comes to a question of the way in which to get a hearing for the Christian message—the question of method, the answer is not so easily given. One thing, however, seems plain. In devising a method we must take account of the deep-seated prejudice against the church and the religion it is supposed to represent. It may, therefore, be necessary for the church, as such, to work through some other agency to win men to the larger life. Always holding before herself the aim of quickening the conscience, stimulating to brotherly service and bringing men to walk humbly with God, resolved to do justly and to love mercy, the church may employ any means at hand.

She might wisely stand back of and be responsible for a work similar to that of the People's Institute of New York. The social settlement is another enterprise which the church should honor and

through which she might work, not by attempting to inject a definite religious propaganda but by supplying the workers and the funds. From the settlements go forth influences which permeate the community with the ideals of democracy which are pretty closely related to the ideals of that social order which the church calls the kingdom of God. Although the settlement does not and cannot, ordinarily, bring religion to formal expression, it sets forth without pretension but with precision, the ideals of religion on its practical side.

I do not, of course, mean to imply that the method I have proposed should supplant all other methods in dealing with the religious problem of the city. It has been my purpose to point out the need and the possibilities of a certain phase of what may be called the larger evangelism. Indications are not wanting that experienced workers are giving earnest attention to the different aspects of the problem. Under the leadership of the Rev. Charles Stelze, the Presbytery of New York is about to undertake a fresh work among immigrant populations of the city along novel and interesting lines.

If I have emphasized the failure of the Protestant church in meeting on its religious side the problem of the modern city, I do not wish to be thought pessimistic as to the future of the city. I firmly believe that a better day is coming and I think signs of its dawn may be already discerned in the sky. The question in my mind is not so much, Is the city going to be saved? but rather, Is the Christian church going to play a leading part in the city's salvation, or is she simply going to follow along behind, and somewhat doubtfully and reluctantly at that? Whereas, the church once had the field of human betterment pretty much to herself, she must now learn to recognize as evangelizing agencies—as co-operative forces in the work she is seeking to accomplish—whatever enterprises make for health, happiness, education and the opportunity to procure the good things of life and the wisdom to use them worthily. Not infrequently has it happened that men outside the official councils of the church have been the first to catch

some fresh views of the real significance of the Gospel of Christ and to apply them to the needs of the world.

All such undertakings as seek to secure better housing conditions, to relieve congestion, to improve educational methods, to safeguard the employment of women and children, to stamp out the great white plague—these and many other movements are potent forces in advancing the kingdom of God. Undoubtedly much of this service has received its inspiration more or less directly from the church. She has failed chiefly in the direct methods she has employed and in the nature of the results she has sought to obtain. May she not regain in part her position of influence if she will seek not to destroy but to fulfil, not to discountenance but to encourage, sanctioning and promoting all movements that make for righteousness and using as channels for her message methods carefully devised to avoid any cause of stumbling?

After all the church is but a means to an end, and it is not impossible that it may be true for the church, as for the individual, that she will find her life in losing it. For centuries she has been preaching her Founder's teaching concerning the necessity of self-sacrifice—losing life in order to save it—and now perhaps the time has come when, in her efforts to meet the needs of the foreign sections of our great cities, she must take to heart her message and, practicing what she has been preaching, merge her identity in some forms of effort better adapted, in the peculiar conditions, to accomplish the high ends she seeks.

THE CHRISTIAN MINISTRY AND THE SOCIAL ORDER

Reviewed by JOHN HAYNES HOLMES

Minister of the Church of the Messiah, New York City

In October, 1908, there was established at the Yale Divinity School a new course of instruction, known as the Course in Pastoral Functions. This step was taken in response to "the growing feeling that our theological schools do not have that close and operative relation

with the life of the churches and of human society that they ought to have." In this modern age, as Dr. Macfarland puts it, in his introduction to this volume on *The Christian Ministry and the Social Order*,¹ we have

a large conception of the church and the ministry. Apparently the minister is not simply to be sent out to shepherd a particular flock. He is to serve his community and society at large. He goes out into the kingdom of God rather than solely into a church. He is to engage in all great social movements, and is to make his church a directing factor in such movements. He and the church together are to serve the world.

This being the case it is necessary that theological instruction should undergo a radical transformation. The minister above described must know not only the Bible but also the literature of modern political economy, practical philanthropy, and social reform. He must understand the life problems not only of the ancient Jews, but also of the present day Americans. He must comprehend religion as applied not merely to the Jerusalem of Isaiah or Jesus, but even more to the New York or Pittsburgh of this present epoch. He must go forth not primarily as a biblical scholar or trained theologian or even graceful preacher, but as a man of action equipped to make himself and his church the directors of great social movements. "It is a splendid program," says Dr. Macfarland—a program which means a theological curriculum comprising instruction not only in Old and New Testament, theology and homiletics, but also in economics, philanthropy, social philosophy, politics, and modern history.

It was as a first step in this direction that the new Course in Pastoral Functions was established at the Yale Divinity School and it was the widespread interest in this remarkable innovation in theological instruction which led to the publication of this volume. It includes eleven lectures, selected "out of many, not on the ground of merit, but solely on the basis of the subjects treated." Dr.

Charles T. Macfarland, the editor of the volume, has two lectures, one on *The Place of the Church and the Ministry in the Realization of Democracy*, and another on *The Opportunity of the Minister in Relation to Industrial Organizations*. Henry Sterling, a Boston labor leader, contributes two lectures on trade unions, and John Mitchell offers *An Exposition and Interpretation of the Trade Union Movement*. Rev. Edwin B. Robinson, of Holyoke, Mass., tells of *The Church and the Wage Earner*. Rev. Ozora S. Davis, lately of New Britain, Conn., speaks of *The Mission of the Church and Ministry Among Non-English Speaking People*; and Dr. Wilbert L. Anderson, of Amherst, Mass., has a lecture on *The Minister and the Rural Community*. The book is completed by one lecture by Anson Phelps Stokes, Jr., on *The Essentials of a Ministry to Men*; one, by Dr. George B. Cutten, on *The Ministry of Mental Healing*; and a final lecture by Rev. Frederick Lynch of New York city, on *The Minister in Association with International Movements*.

If any adverse criticism can be brought against this volume, it must be against the selection of the particular lectures to be included. As one reads the table of contents, especially with the knowledge that the lectures there enumerated were "chosen out of many," one notices serious duplications and still more serious omissions. The question of industrial organizations constitutes one of the most important social problems of the hour; but we doubt if as many as five out of the eleven lectures should be devoted to its consideration, especially when the lectures by Mr. Sterling and Mr. Mitchell, and those by Dr. Macfarland and Mr. Robinson, cover practically the same ground. One wonders also what place a lecture on *The Ministry of Mental Healing* properly has in a volume on *The Ministry and the Social Order*. And what shall we say as to the absence of any lectures on such pressing social problems as socialism, the single tax, industrial education, organized charity and practical philanthropy? Lectures upon all of

¹The Christian Ministry and the Social Order. Edited by Charles S. Macfarland, Yale University Press; pp. 303; price \$1.25. This book may be obtained through THE SURVEY.

these subjects were probably given in the course; but in order that the volume should be as complete an exposition as possible of its subject, ought not some of these lectures to have been included in place of two at least of those upon trade unions, of Dr. Cutten's admirable but misplaced lecture on mental healing, and also, perhaps, in place of Mr. Stokes's somewhat pious and distinctly sermonic talk on *The Essentials of a Ministry to Men*?

We are tempted, however, to pardon this careless selection of topics, when we come to the lectures themselves. These are all so admirable, that, in spite of the declaration in the preface, we are persuaded that the lectures were chosen (unconsciously, perhaps), not at all "on the basis of the subjects treated" but rather "on the ground of comparative merit." Nothing could be finer—more prophetic of the new ministry and the new church of the coming age—than Dr. Macfarland's opening paper on *The Place of the Church and the Ministry in the Realization of Democracy*. Equally inspiring are the three lectures on the methods and ideals of trade unions by Mr. Sterling and Mr. Mitchell. After reading these fervid appeals for sympathy with the laboring man in his heroic struggle for industrial independence, one marvels that they should have to be made to the church and should so often be made in vain. Notable also, in this same connection, is the presentation by active ministers like Dr. Macfarland and Mr. Robinson, of the proper relations between church and wage earner. Every minister might well ponder upon the ideals of service, set forth by these men, the practical measures advocated, and above all the actual success which they themselves have had in winning the allegiance of the working classes. Mr. Davis's presentation of the problem of the immigrant opens up a vast field of labor which the Protestant churches of America have hardly touched as yet. Mr. Anderson sets forth most effectively the immense amount of work which awaits the efficient country pastor. Mr.

Stokes's *Essentials of a Ministry to Men*, different in purpose and tone from the other lectures, explains these essentials with persuasive power, as "knowledge of and faith in Jesus Christ, one's fellowmen, and one's self." Dr. Cutten's lecture is so excellent a presentation of the subject of mental healing that one is quite ready to pardon its inclusion in the volume. Outlining with ample knowledge the history of this religious phenomenon, interpreting the psychological principles upon which its most recent expressions have been based, recognizing frankly the undoubted cures effected by the healing processes of the church in all ages and under all conditions, even the most superstitious, he reaches the interesting conclusion that, "after the (present) excitement and novelty have evaporated, and the physicians have taken up all the work which legitimately belongs to them, the church will decide that . . . it is satisfied to delegate the therapeutic art as such to the physicians." And lastly, there is the lecture by Frederick Lynch, well-planned and stirringly executed, in which he sets forth the marvelous progress which has been achieved since the opening of the century toward international peace.

Admirable as are these several lectures, however, we yet venture to affirm that this volume is chiefly valuable not so much for what it contains, as for what it signifies. It marks a new trend in theological education. It promises a new type of Christian minister. It embodies the prophecy of a new church which, unlike the old church of the past, shall concern itself not so much with the problem of individual salvation as with that of social regeneration, and which, in the words of the editor, shall not simply participate in social movements, but become "their guide and director." It is not a little significant that the last sentence of the last lecture should be: "There are no limits to the opportunity of the Christian minister in the social order." This must be the one thought of him who reads this book and learns what this opportunity really is.

THE SOCIAL ADVANCE OF THE CHURCHES

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The Protestant churches of the United States are calling an advance into the social, civic and industrial spheres for influence and action. The fact is the more notable because this advance movement is actually taking place during the sharpest decline they have experienced, since the reaction they suffered in the first half of the eighteenth century. Indeed those voicing the call forward¹ are most concerned over the failure of the evangelical churches to maintain the pace of their progress.

THE CHURCH OF TODAY

Mr. Crooker has written at once the most impressively demonstrable statement of the churches' retrogression and the most inspiringly urgent plea for their victorious support that has appeared in this generation in his book, *The Church of Today*. His statement of their actual situation is the more convincing because so reasonably accounted for by his fair inquiry into the causes and tendencies both within and without the churches. His conclusion, therefore, is the more startling that "the church is today facing the most serious crisis in its history; and if this crisis is not successfully passed, a calamity will befall the human race of a most momentous character. . . . It involves the existence of the church itself and bound up with the church are the spiritual interests of mankind, so vast, so precious, so essential."

His plea is the more insurmountable because at every contrast he draws be-

tween the churches and whatever good things may share with them the loyalty and service of the people, his readers are sure that he loves these good things no less for loving the church more, and that he does not mean to depreciate any one of them by appreciating supremely the functions and value of the churches. But in his passion for the church as the best, he understates the functions of other agencies. He falls into the common error of regarding "humanitarian ministries" as merely remedial and reformatory, of the "Good Samaritan" order, missing their idealizing, formative function. Indeed some of his arguments to prove how indispensable the church is to everything else, might be reversed to prove some of these things to be as indispensable to the churches in fulfilling their purpose. The one note conspicuously lacking in this compelling appeal to Christian loyalty is the recognition of the function of the home, state, shop and school, to be as distinct, indispensable and obligatory as that of the church itself.

He disclaims any right or profit in the church's encroachments upon the functions of these other social agencies, and insists that "if the church cannot justify its existence as a place of worship, as an oracle of prophecy, as the representative of religion, as a corporate life in the spirit of Jesus, it has no future." He says "it must attend strictly to its specific task," which is to nurture the soul in "worship, sympathy, love, hope, cultivation of the spiritual life." Nevertheless the inference is as strong as the old claim used to be, that the church is not one of several divinely constituted and essential possessions of mankind, claiming loyalty and service from all the good and the true, but the only divine institution having a supreme claim, with the priority and obligatoriness of which no other may share, the precedence of

¹Crooker, Joseph Henry, *The Church of To-day*. The Pilgrim Press. Price 75 cents.

Gladson, Washington. *The Church and Modern Life*, Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Pp. 221. Price \$1.25 net.

Mott, John R. *The Future Leadership of the Church*, Young Men's Christian Association, Student Department, New York. Price \$1.

Macfarland, Charles S., Editor, *The Christian Ministry and the Social Order*, Yale University Press. Pp. 303. Price \$1.25.

Thompson, C. Bertrand, *The Church and the Wage Earner*, Charles Scribner's Sons Pp. 229. Price \$1. These books may be obtained through THE SURVEY.

which no one may ever doubt or dispute. May not the present reaction from the church be due to previous urgencies of quite such exclusive claims? Is there not danger in claiming too much for the church as an organization that men may expect more from it than, alone and by itself, it has been or can be able to fulfill in fact and experience?

The highest and truest note struck in this forcibly persuasive book is in the credit given the churches, despite their divisions, for creating, realizing and promoting the corporate and community life among men. Eloquently he portrays the ways in which the church "represents this 'togetherness' of religion." "For what does the church really do?", he asks, and answers: "It binds old and young, men and women, rich and poor, wise and ignorant, weak and strong together with bands of affection, sympathy, love; a sweet and tender common interest; a worship in common, a service in common, a life in common; a spiritual and spiritualizing community; a dear togetherness where the strength of all helps the weakness of the individual." As against the narrowing and retarding tendency to exclusive individualism in religion, Mr. Crooker distinctly promotes the social advance of the church, in demonstrating it to be "an organism where a man's love, sympathy, hope, reverence, strength, cheer and aspiration may be, and ought to be, put to service for the good of others"; "a supremely fruitful method of public helpfulness," wherein religion is "organized, energized and enlarged into a public dispensation."

Therein the church in glorious deed has not only demonstrated itself to be first among equally essential institutions, but the most necessary of them all to make possible and promote human progress.

THE CHURCH AND MODERN LIFE

Dr. Gladden demonstrates and defends with equal urgency the natural and inevitable tendency of religion to organize its adherents in *The Church and Modern Life*. Psychologically and

historically he proves that "wherever there is religion, men will be associated and their work will be carried on under forms of social organization." He, too, claims that "more than all other agencies put together, Christianity has done more to promote acquaintanceship and neighborly relations among men," "done most of what has been done to socialize mankind." "Anarchism," he affirms, "is no more thinkable or workable in religion than in politics."

He tests the decadence and efficiency of the churches according to whether they are doing their business or not. The business of the church, he says, begins with the establishment of the individual's friendship with God, but it continues only in establishing the same divine friendship among men, and cannot stop short of bringing "business, politics, art, education, philanthropy, society and the family under Christ's law of love." It is in this that the kingdom of heaven consists, "not in an ecclesiastical establishment." So singularly seldom is that kingdom mentioned by Mr. Crooker that by contrast with Dr. Gladden, he seems almost to have lost sight of it in his emphasis on the church. Dr. Gladden seeks the test of the church's vitality and effectiveness not in its own organization and institutions, but in the extent to which it succeeds in Christianizing the social order in the midst of which it stands:

If by means of its ministrations, the community round about the church is steadily becoming more Christian; if kindness, sympathy, purity, justice, goodwill are increasing in their power over the lives of men; if business methods are becoming less rapacious; if employers and employed are more and more inclined to be friends rather than foes; if politicians are growing conscientious and unselfish; if the enemies of society are in retreat before the forces of decency and order; if amusements are becoming purer and more rational; if polite society is getting to be simpler in its tastes, and less ostentatious in its manners, and less extravagant in its expenditures; if poverty and crime are diminishing; if parents are becoming more wise and firm in the administration of their sacred trusts, and children more loyal and affectionate to their parents; if such fruits as these are more visible on every side, then there is more reason to believe that the church knows its business and is prosecuting it with efficiency. If none of these effects are seen in the life of

the community, the evidence is clear that the church is neglecting its business, and that failure must be written across its record.

Judging it by these tests and fearlessly facing all the facts of the present situation, Dr. Gladden refuses to admit the church to be a failure in modern life, as stoutly as he denies that the social tendencies in modern society are all downward. Serious as are the injury and enfeeblement of the churches, due to the long standing malady of not knowing or doing their business, he gathers hope from the fact that "the church knows today what ails her better than she ever knew before." More directly than Mr. Crooker conceives it to be the function or the duty of the church, Dr. Gladden is sure that only by assuming the responsibility of improving social conditions, especially those due to low-paid labor, will the church save its own life or that of the nation. The "testing time" he thinks to be at hand in the demand upon the church "to reconcile races, to pacify industry, to moralize business, to extirpate vice, to purify politics, to simplify life." Just this purpose "the new evangelism" will fulfil by saving the individual from "the doom of moral individualism" and by furnishing "social motive power—the dynamic which will create its own forms and machinery."

The "church extension," which the new leadership will achieve, is "the extension of the life of the church into every department of human life." With all the momentum coming from his long life of distinguished service, Dr. Gladden, like a Moses to a coming Joshua, summons the strongest and best to such a leadership; not only in the churches which comprehend and fulfil their function, but in those which do not understand their business. And to this service of their day and generation he summons them as "far and away the most important work that is being done in the world at the present day."

FUTURE CHURCH LEADERSHIP

John R. Mott's distinguished service in the Young Men's Christian Association and his close identification with the

college world as general secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation attach much significance to his personal opinions as representative of these influential constituencies. In his latest book, *The Future Leadership of the Church*, he turns from his effective urgency of missionary work in foreign lands upon young men, to enjoin upon them the duty of recruiting the ministry of the churches. Among the distinctive calls in this generation to do so, he emphasizes as strongly as any "the social aspects of the program of Christianity." The breadth of his view of the gospel and its application are indicated in his insistence that it must "vitalize and control every part of human life, domestic, commercial, industrial, educational, civic, national and religious." Not only are social questions considered an imperative concern of the church, but to give itself whole-heartedly to their solution is urged as essential to the church itself. "If it holds back in the present social crisis, it will not command the following of many keen minds and unselfish spirits." In facing the massed facts indicating the serious falling off of students for the ministry he says, "Our controversy should not be with these other forms of Christian and altruistic service." Enlisting young men in Christian, philanthropic and betterment work, he claims has diverted few and "been a potent indirect means of influencing them to devote their lives to Christian service." The growing sympathy shown by the church toward social work of all kinds, he thinks is "sure to result in more young men offering themselves for the ministry." While admitting that the lack of freedom experienced by many ministers to "express their honest convictions about the application of the principles and spirit of Christ to the personal, social, industrial, civic and national problems of our time" deters many men from entering the ministry, he yet reminds them that "the ministry is the most nearly free of all the professions." In proof of this contention he cites the "limitations by which the average journalist or professor of political economy or congressman finds himself circumscribed in respect to the matter of freedom of expres-

sion." He gathers hope for the future in asserting "the most encouraging fact of our generation" to be that "the spirit of sacrifice and service for the good of mankind is stronger and more prevalent than ever before."

MINISTERS AND THE SOCIAL ORDER¹

The social training given by many theological seminaries increasingly fits the ministry of the churches for such leadership as the times demand. The initiative in this direction at the Harvard Divinity School in 1880 was followed at Andover in 1887, Hartford in 1888, Chicago Theological Seminary in 1890, Yale in 1892, the Divinity School of the University of Chicago in 1894 and by many other seminaries since. College and university courses in economics are laying earlier and better basis for this professional training of the divinity schools. Interest and inspiration are given their undergraduates very generally by securing the services of specialists for single lectures or for such courses as the Merrick lectures for 1907-8 at the Ohio Wesleyan University published under the title *The Social Application of Religion*. Theological students and those in the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Association and other lay training schools are also taking advantage of the specialized courses in the schools of philanthropy and civics at New York, Chicago, Boston and St. Louis.

The most recent recognition of social studies as a part of the accepted theological curriculum is given by Yale Divinity School in including in its regular Course on Pastoral Functions, lecturers and lectures hitherto registered either as "special" or as falling within sociological courses or departments. While the Chicago Seminary sixteen years ago was the first to devote an entire department to social economics and give it equal status with the older departments, Yale now identifies such instruction and instructors with the old-time pastoral theology. Elsewhere a great variety of specialists were introduced long since into seminary classrooms as well as spe-

cial courses, but it is certainly a sign of the new times to find one of the oldest university divinity schools including in its published Course on Pastoral Functions such worthy representatives of organized labor as Henry Sterling, compositor on the Boston *Globe* and formerly secretary of Typographical Union No. 13, and John Mitchell, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, formerly president of the United Mine Workers of America and now chairman of the Trade Agreement Department of the National Civic Federation. Quite as significant, however, is it to find some of the brightest men in the younger ministry lecturing in this course on such themes as *The Part and Place of the Church and the Ministry in the Realization of Democracy*, *The Church and the Wage Earner*, *The Opportunity of the Minister in Relation to Industrial Organizations*, *The Minister's Work in Civic Reform*, in *Political Life* and in *Municipal Betterment*, the *Minister and the Rural Community*, *The Opportunity and the Mission of the Church and Ministry Among Non-English-Speaking People*, and *The Minister in Association with International Movements*.

Those of them who spoke on industrial relations were as urgent as the representatives of organized labor in laying upon the conscience and heart of the church, its obligation and opportunity to apply Christianity to industry. The social aspects of the problem of the rural community were shown to involve the country church and minister as unavoidably and vitally as the country community itself. Rev. Wilbert L. Anderson in so doing amply sustained his reputation for insight and vision richly earned by his volume on *The Country Town*.

Scant reckoning is given in all these discussions to the difficulty sure to be encountered in attempting to combine an aggressive evangelism with the church's efforts to unite, fraternize and socialize the increasingly heterogeneous and divided people of their respective localities. Protestant churches are urged to use their own buildings, resources and people in evangelistic work among immigrants through the teaching of English and by

¹See separate review of this volume on page 848 by Rev. John Haynes Holmes.

the most direct methods. They are also told that "the spirit and practice of parish neighborliness will be the finest product of the mission service and the only permanent warrant for it." The "secret" of the religious care of the immigrant by American churches is truly said to lie right here. The extent to which a church is really a neighbor to the community and the neighborliness of its members to their neighbors certainly measure the extent of its actual service to the people surrounding it. "Parish neighborliness" finely phrases the finest thing. But President Davis well affirms it to be "one of the most difficult pieces of work that the pastor can have to do to bring about a genuine spirit of neighborliness in the parish." If as he says it is so difficult, even "in the parish," to get the church people "to neighbor-up" to the strangers who live in the same street and block with them, such scant consideration should not be given to the insuperable difficulties of combining aggressive evangelism with equally aggressive efforts to unite people of alien faiths and racial antipathies in those new neighborships which must be realized if American democracy, American standards of living, American morality, and the American religious spirit are to survive. While a church should and can be neighbor to its neighbors and also aggressively evangelize, yet its aggressive evangelism in many communities is sure to prevent it from being the center for promoting and comprehending the neighborliness of the whole community. The aim, struggle and sacrifice of the little groups of settlement residents to achieve that broader civic, industrial and social purpose, which is so essential both to immigrant working people and to the communities in which they live, should neither be reproached as less Christian, nor be pitted against the churches as their competitors or substitutes, just because they do not assume the church's function of evangelism.

THE CHURCH AND THE WAGE EARNER

In the best review of what has been written on the relation of wage earners and the churches, C. Bertrand Thompson in *The Church and the Wage Earner* describes the situation as it is stated in the books and papers, which he reviews. There is, as he says, more misunderstanding on both sides than intentional indifference or antagonism on either. The churches always have been, as he shows, "slow in finding themselves," as their surroundings change. When they understand what they ought to do, "in the long run they will be found doing it." So they have not been guilty of a conscious divergence between their preaching and practice, "except in the matter of spiritual and social equality." They have believed in helping the poor individually but not collectively. And even that helpfulness "has often been marked by inefficiency and misdirection." The lapse of the beneficent activity which the church time and again has taken in politics has resulted in the degradation of social and political conditions. To the "irreparably belated" interest and participation of the churches in the severe struggle to improve these conditions, Mr. Thompson attributes the desertion and apathy of great masses of working people and the bitterness of some of them.

Our estimate of the way in which he, and the other writers now under review, handle the facts and forces of the industrial situation is reserved for our *Industrial Survey* in the issue of this magazine for October 2. It fulfills our present purpose to conclude that the practically constructive aim and suggestion with which all these writers point the church's way into a better future invaluably supplements the incomparably valuable service which Professor Rauschenbusch has rendered in tracing scientifically the way in which the problems of the present situation have come up to us out of the history of the church's past relationships to the people.



BRACE FARM SCHOOL FOR BOYS, VALHALLA, N. Y.

“THE CHILDREN’S HOUR”

EDITH L. JARDINE

We are so accustomed to the unceasing stream of immigrants pouring into New York city, we are so weary of the sound of advancing feet, that when we hear of the exodus of a group, however small, we look up hopefully and stop to question; and when we hear that it is a band of children, 100 strong, who are leaving, children with faces turned toward a health land of clear skies, green fields and unpaved streets, and not destined to return, we rejoice exceedingly.

On a May morning of this year, a large building on Worth street opened its doors, and two columns of children filed out, with no backward glance of regret at the home they were leaving forever. Not at the magic call of a Pied Piper, did they turn their steps countryward but by the direction of that new spirit which brought about a recent great conference at Washington for the consideration of the rights of children, and through the influence of which spirit they are at last coming into their own.

But only when we learn something of the history of the abandoned home do we realize the full significance of the movement.

The Five Points House of Industry was founded in 1850 by the Rev. L. M. Pease for the purpose of providing shelter and employment, for the poor of the Five Points, then one of the most notoriously evil sections of New York city. If credence can be given to the lurid descriptions of local historians, then the Five Points House of Industry helped bring light into a dark place, and make clean an indescribably foul corner of the city.

Begun as a refuge for women of the lowest type, it soon opened its doors to neglected children. By successive steps the educational and protective work for children grew, until the institution became what it is to-day—a home for the maintenance and education of orphan children or those whose parents are unable to provide for them.

Since its beginning it has cared for over 33,000 inmates. The capacity of the abandoned building was 300 and the number of children under care was not often below the maximum. Three hundred children, ate, slept, played and went to school within those stern walls, and for many years, owing to the conditions

in the neighborhood, practically remained in the building all winter.

In the simplest terms, the former House of Industry was a great institution of the old school, under the care of a conscientious body of trustees, whose desire was to keep it up to the highest standards for institutions of its kind. But fifty years passed before the lesson was learned that institutions of its kind are wrong, however high the standards; that boys and girls cannot be made healthy, and wholesome, mentally and physically, without certain elemental things—sunlight, pure air, good earth in sufficient area, and a fair amount of “mothering.”

An accumulation of danger signals, not to be ignored, focused attention upon the physical condition of the children. To quote from a report of the present superintendent:

For months past, the health conditions on Worth street have been far from satisfactory; this has been partly due to the extensive building operations and subway construction, which have necessitated torn-up streets, and kept the air foul with dust and dirt. Another contributing factor to the unwholesome situation was to be found in the character of our own institution. So many children housed together on the congested plan without ample exercise in the open air and sunlight was enough in itself to tax to the utmost very superior sanitary conditions.

During the previous winter the building was never out of quarantine; an outbreak of measles was followed by diphtheria, and one case developed after another until the children left the city.

It is of interest to know that the tuberculin test was applied to all suspected cases, and that a large percentage reacted; though exact figures could not be obtained.

The awakening came at last and the immediate need of removal to the country was recognized. Then, with the assistance of the Children's Aid Society, a plan was worked out, which, if fully developed, will be in accordance with the best ideas in regard to the care of dependent children. The mutual interest of the two societies in the new plan arises from the fact that six of the trustees of

the Five Points House of Industry, are members of the Children's Aid Society. We quote from a joint report of the committees of both societies:

It is believed that by the system of maintaining a country home with from 100 to 200 children in residence and conducting an active placing out work in connection therewith, provision may be made for the permanent care of from 500 to 1,000 different children each year. The Five Points House of Industry lacks the organization, facilities, and experience required for placing out work. The Children's Aid Society has placed out from 500 to 1,000 children a year for many years past, and has a large and well organized force in charge of this exclusive duty. We therefore recommend that the two organizations be united under the management of the Children's Aid Society, keeping the corporate organization of the Five Points House of Industry intact for the present, and that the Five Points House of Industry make an arrangement with the Children's Aid Society to conduct its work for committed children of the Protestant faith, at a country home.

Before the children were taken away from the city, an effective investigation of the circumstances of their relatives, resulted in the return of 125 to the care of relatives and friends able to provide for them. The hundred children remaining under the care of the House of Industry were divided into two groups. The girls were sent to the Martha Home at Ossining, N. Y., and the boys to the Brace Farm School at Valhalla, N. Y. These two homes, which have heretofore been used for the fresh air work of the Children's Aid Society, will house the children of the Five Points House of Industry until the new country home, on the cottage plan, which is promised for the near future, is ready for them.

About two years ago a visit was made to the Five Points House of Industry for the purpose of seeing some children recently placed there. The visitor was conducted to the playground at the top of the building; a vivid impression is retained of a large, rather low room, surrounded by windows, protected by wire netting, and narrow benches against the walls. Here boys and girls of all ages ran round and round, shouting and screaming. There was nothing else for them to do, no other outlet for their pent

up energies. Two little girls emerged from this whirlpool of children, hand in hand. They were trembling and seemed dazed by the noise and confusion. With a very strong effort the visitor resisted the impulse to take them away at once. In the infirmary a little boy was seen, at the earnest request of his mother. Colorless, spiritless and emaciated, the child sat up in bed and could hardly be made to speak. His condition was particularly shocking, because he had formerly been a sturdy, mischievous, irrepressible boy. His case puzzled the doctors; he seemed fading away for no apparent reason. His mother begged to be allowed to take him home; and she had her wish. Under her constant care and nursing the child was restored to health, and after living a year in the country under most favorable conditions, he is a normal sturdy boy again. He had fallen ill, apparently, for the lack of those elemental things already spoken of.

Here, by way of contrast, are a few glimpses of the new life in the country: though they are the impressions of the

children themselves, they are none the less significant.

"When we got there, it was so beautiful that we thought we would love this home. A man brought some lovely flowers, and planted them around the porch, and some he planted in the center of a lovely patch of grass." "We have our school in the parlor, and it seems so homelike to look at the warm fire and to watch the sparks as they fly, and listen to the wood as it burns. When the weather grows warmer we are going to have school on the porch, and lessons under the trees." "We went for a walk and picked flowers in the high woods, and we climbed the high hill to get a good tree to plant. When we got tired we sat down on a large stone and began to sing some of our old songs."

All the letters of the children are full of appreciation of the natural beauties and wholesome occupations that have come into their lives for the first time. Simple though they are, they are fraught with meaning to one who has seen the other side.



MARTHA HOME FOR GIRLS, OSSINING, N. Y.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Charles A. Bennett has an editorial on the American school system in the October issue of the *Manual Training Magazine* of which he is the editor. He points out that the courses laid out in our schools lead from the kindergarten direct to the university. The pupil who cannot tread this "straight and narrow path" is regarded as a backslider when in turning aside he may really "be starting toward his highest possible place in the world."

Mr. Bennett contrasts our system with that of the elementary English schools, where "it is taken for granted that every boy on leaving school will earn his living in some kind of manual employment." And the course is arranged accordingly. It is, however, in Munich that Mr. Bennett finds a plan most worthy of emulation. He says:

"In this connection we may well consider the epoch-making changes going on in the city of Munich under the supervision of Dr. Georg Kirchensteiner. In the Flurstrasse School, a *volkschule*, under the principalship of Heinrich Eber the following programs of studies are carried out in the eighth grade:

"For boys—Religion, two hours a week, German language two hours, reading and literature three hours, history two hours, practical mathematics, including bookkeeping four hours, mensuration of solids two hours, natural science (a) theory two hours, (b) laboratory, physics, two hours, chemistry two hours, handwork, woodturning and metalworking, each a half year, four hours; drawing five hours, gymnastics two hours, total thirty-two hours.

"One hour of the time given to drawing is devoted to working drawings in connection with the shopwork. The remainder is divided between freehand and mechanical drawing.

"For girls (who are in classes separate from the boys)—Religion two hours a week,

reading and literature three hours, German language three hours, domestic economy (a) theory four hours; (b) practice four hours, drawing two hours, singing one hour, gymnastics two hours, needlework four hours, total twenty-five hours.

"These programs are significant for many reasons. Notice that the boys have thirty-two hours of work while the girls have only twenty-five; the boys have six hours of mathematics while the girls have none apart from their domestic economy, which includes some work in applied mathematics. The boys take physics; the girls do not.

"But especially notice that in this finishing year of the elementary school the emphasis is placed on practical mathematics, laboratory work in science, drawing and manual training for the boys—in all twenty-one hours out of the thirty-two—and on domestic economy, needlework and drawing for the girls—in all fourteen hours out of the twenty-five. The director of the school says that the guiding principle in the selection of studies is to follow the natural development of children and at the same time to recognize probable future occupation. In this connection it should be stated that in the eighth grade only is marked emphasis placed upon vocational work. The work of the grades below the eighth is no more vocational than that in our own schools, except that it is more thoroughly done than in many of ours.

"While it is evident to every American who studies the schools of Germany that we cannot successfully adopt all the features of German industrial education, it is equally evident that we can get many suggestions from German schools, and to us it seems clear that the schools of Munich offer suggestions of special value with reference to some of the present organization problems of the upper grammar grades."

COMMUNICATIONS

BOSTON'S WATER DEBT

TO THE EDITOR:

I desire to correct an error in my recent study of Making Boston Over [THE SURVEY, September 4]. I was misled into drawing an unwarranted conclusion from the table contained in the report of the Metropolitan Improvements Commission. The very large water debt in the metropolitan district appears upon further inquiry to be a bonded debt, representing the pooled interests of the various cities and towns within the district. The tremendous growth shown in the chart, instead of representing an added burden, merely represents a release from the former individual water debts of the various towns and an assumption of their proportion of the bonded indebtedness. In many

instances the burden upon municipalities is considerably less under the present system than formerly.

Furthermore, the supply of water is subject to daily analysis, and is kept pure. All cities within a ten mile radius, unless supplied with adequate and healthful water, are compelled to abandon their supply and take from the metropolitan water system. Outside the ten mile radius cities are permitted to secure this supply upon the payment of an agreed price.

While the burden is therefore a large one, it represents a substantial and necessary asset, of which the metropolitan water board and the people of the district are justly proud. The debt is decreasing by annual payments. In 1906 it amounted to more than \$35,000,000 and was reduced in two

years by about \$1,215,000. Mr. Baxter says, "The water-debt was incurred for a great public service that is more than self-sustaining. Hence the debt is no burden at all; it stands for a highly profitable investment, managed on the soundest business principles."

New York.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY.

THE SOCIAL IDEAL

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to thank you for your definition of The Social Ideal. It is the sanest, most sensible one I've ever read.

What is possible and practical is so much more worth while than what is merely sentimental. I shall continue to carry my lamp and try to keep the light though small, burning without a flicker.

New York.

W. J. HOGGSON.

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK

TO THE EDITOR:

In reply to the statement of Joseph F. Smith, superintendent of the Catholic School Board, published in *THE SURVEY* of September 18, of "unfair discrimination" against the parochial schools in my Plea for Vocational Training (issue of August 7), I beg to draw attention to the facts on which his contention rests.

The schools considered throughout my article are "public and parochial," and are, whenever named, referred to as such. The parochial school is, therefore, not "named in print to the exclusion of other schools," nor when the matter of a child's leaving school before the law permits is discussed, are the parochial schools accused of having a "proportionately equal number" of withdrawals.

To quote from the article itself:

"Of the 406 children who left school, it is distressing to note: 22 from 5A grade, among them 2 from parochial schools; 5 from 4B grade, among them 4 from parochial schools; 2 from 4A grade, among them 2 from parochial schools; 1 from 3B grade, from parochial school."

I fail to see in the data here presented, an attempt to give "details about the alleged violation in the parochial schools," while saying nothing about those in the public schools,—to make out a worse case for the parochial than for the public schools.

As regards the deduction concerning the absence of records, I beg leave to quote the following:

"This method (that is personal visits) having proven ineffectual in eleven cases, letters were sent, which unfortunately shared the fate of the earlier interviews. It seems fair to conclude therefore, that the failure to respond argues not only indifference to the problem, but also, as one principal frankly admitted to be true of his school, a total absence of records."

The conclusion drawn, namely an indiffer-

ence to the problem and an absence of records, applied to the eleven schools that failed to respond, not to the sixty-two parochial schools, since at the outset I made clear that the investigation included only thirty-one parochial schools, and of these twenty complied with my request for information.

It was not only in this "unauthorized investigation" that a full, free and ready response was granted neither me nor my questionnaires. When as official investigator for the New York State Immigration Commission, I visited certain schools, admission to the classroom was denied me. In each instance the official card of introduction was presented, my mission explained to the principal in charge, and the reply was that the school was not open to inspection, the visits being restricted to the pastor who made weekly rounds. Only after a letter was obtained from Father Thornton, was the state commission recognized as it had been elsewhere throughout the state upon a mere presentation of its card.

This does not on the face of it, appear a striking illustration of the "friendly co-operation" that the critic and "all workers interested in the welfare of the children" so desire.

New York.

MARY FLEXNER.

ERRATUM

TO THE EDITOR:

Please ask readers of the report of the Prison Congress, p. 760, to tip the "w" in *claws* upside down! It is rather mean to leave Tacoma to think that we did not appreciate her hospitality in giving us an excellent *clam-bake*!

I. C. B.

To Educate School Children.—The West Virginia Board of Health has ordered 10,000 placards containing suggestions for the prevention of tuberculosis, to be placed in the schoolrooms of the state.

Going One Better.—E. P. Powell says in the September 2 issue of *Unity*. "I have begun to think that there is one magazine in America more important than the *Literary Digest*. I mean *THE SURVEY*, our social, charitable and civic magazine. It will keep you in close touch with every heart-throb of humanity, and it will teach you how to make yourself count in the great struggle for human betterment."

WANTED—A position by a Parish Visitor. Four years' experience, best references. Open for engagements after October 1.

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YOUNG man of executive ability, trained and experienced in modern methods of Juvenile Institutional work, desires the supervision of boys' department or superintendency of orphanage or similar institution. Location immaterial. W.S., care of *THE SURVEY*

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PROGRAM OF LECTURES IN EVENING COURSE, 1909-1910

First Term, Tuesday, Oct. 5, 1909, to Tuesday, Jan. 25, 1910.

Lectures begin promptly every Tuesday evening (except December 21st and December 28th) at 8.10 and 9.10 o'clock respectively, and each lecture is confined to thirty-five minutes, followed by fifteen minutes for questions and class discussion. There is an intermission of ten minutes at nine o'clock, between the first and second periods, and the class adjourns at ten o'clock promptly. Members of the class are requested to be in their seats in the classroom (901-905 United Charities Building) at 8.10 p.m. punctually. Dr. O. F. Lewis, Supervisor of Evening Course.

1. The Family, Organized Charity and Relief Problems, Half-term Course, First Period.
2. Child Helping Agencies and their Problems, Half-term Course, Second Period.

Examinations in both courses, January 25, 8.10 to 10.00 P. M.

DATE	FIRST PERIOD—8.10 TO 9.00 P. M.		SECOND PERIOD—9.10 TO 10.00 P. M.	
	SPEAKERS	TOPICS	SPEAKERS	TOPICS
OCT. 5	Mr. Solomon Lowenstein, Supt. Hebrew Orphan Asylum, Dr. S. M. Lindsay, Dr. O. F. Lewis and others.	Opening Exercises—Brief Addresses.	Mr. Homer Folks, Sec'y State Charities Aid Assn., former Commissioner of Charities, New York City.	Hist. of Child-Caring Work.
OCT. 12	Dr. O. F. Lewis, Financial Secretary, C. O. S. New York City.	Hist. of Organized Charity.	Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, Supt. Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society.	Principles and Methods of Boarding Out Children.
OCT. 19	Dr. O. F. Lewis	The Work of the New York Charity Organization Society		Public Supervision of Boarded-Out Children in New York State.
OCT. 26	Mr. Morris D. Waldman, Supt. United Hebrew Charities.	The Work of the United Hebrew Charities in New York City.	Mr. Chas. Loring Brace, Sec'y Children's Aid Society.	The Work of a Children's Aid Society.
NOV. 2		The Work of the St. Vincent de Paul Society.	Mr. E. Fellows Jenkins, Sec'y and Supt. N. Y. S. P. C. C.	The Work of the Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.
NOV. 9	Mrs. Helene Ingram, Supt. Relief Dept. A. I. C. P.	The Work of the Association for the Imp. of the Condition of the Poor in N. Y. City.	Mr. Homer Folks.	Public Care of Children in Institutions.
NOV. 16	Dr. Lee K. Frankel, Manager Indus. Dept. Metropolitan Life Ins. Co.	The Standard of Living.	Dr. Hastings H. Hart, Children's Dept. Russell Sage Foundation.	Principles and Methods of Placing Out Children.
NOV. 23	Dr. R. C. McCrea, Associate Director, School of Philanthropy.	The Causes of Poverty.	Dr. H. H. Hart.	Supervision of Placed-Out Children.
NOV. 30	Miss Mary E. Richmond, C. O. Dept. Russell Sage Foundation.	Investigation—Methods and Principles.	Dr. R. R. Reeder, Supt. N. Y. Orphan Asylum.	Problems Peculiar to Protestant Child-Caring Institutions.
DEC. 7	Miss Caroline Goodyear.	Principles of Treatment—Material Relief.		Problems Peculiar to Roman Catholic Child-Caring Institutions.
DEC. 14	Dr. O. F. Lewis.	Prin. of Treatment—Other forms of Relief.	Mr. Solomon Lowenstein.	Problems Peculiar to Jewish Child-Caring Institutions.
JAN. 4	Mrs. John M. Glenn, Chairman Clinton District Committee C. O. S.	Co-operation in Treatment.	Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein.	Modern Tendencies in Orphan Asylum Work.
JAN. 11	Dr. O. F. Lewis,	Administrative Problems, Records and Statistics.	Dr. R. R. Reeder.	Educational Standards of Institutional Schools.
JAN. 18	Miss Lillian D. Wald, Head-worker Nurses' Settlement.	The Care of the Sick in Their Homes. District Nursing.		Anthropological Measurements and Diet in Children's Institutions.

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